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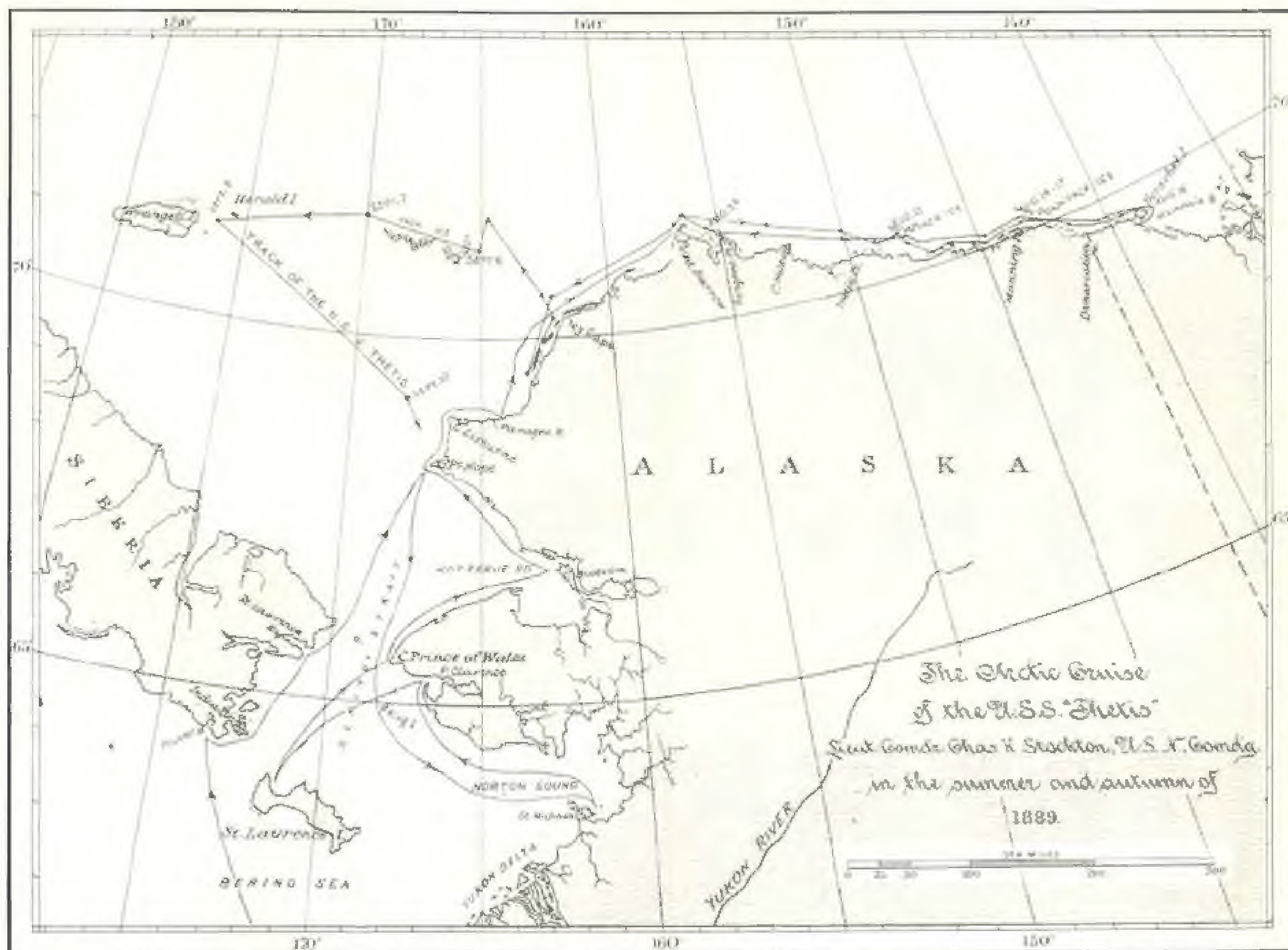
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THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINE.

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THE ARCTIC CRUISE OF THE U. S. S. THETIS IN THE SUMMER AND AUTUMN OF 1889.

BY CHARLES D. STURTON.

A GERMAN writer of note once said, in the course of a discussion upon certain French characteristics, that "the trouble with the French people is,—they do not *know* Geography."

Whether this is still true of the French, as a nation, or whether the authority may be considered a good one, it is not pertinent for me here to say; but I feel that of the nations of the world, this country, above all others (England, perhaps, alone excepted), should not have the want of knowledge of geography classed among its national failings.

We have, however, very much geography yet to learn, as individuals and as a nation; not only of countries beyond our own but particularly of our own continent and our own domain, while commercial geography is almost an unknown and forbidden study.

Professional geographer as I am, as member of the naval service, I find that every cruise adds to my geographic knowledge, and in giving an account of the cruise during last summer of the ship which I had the honor to command, I trust that I may be enabled to present some geographic facts as interesting to my

fellow-members of the Geographic Society as they were novel and instructive to myself.

Before beginning my narrative, however, let me give you an idea of the extent of the shore-line of the territory or semi-colonial province along which so much of our cruise was made.

Alaska has an area of about 580,000 square miles, consisting of a large mainland with a coast-line 9,050 miles in length, and also of more than 1,100 islands, with a coast-line of 2,950 miles, the entire coast-line being 12,000 miles. The coast-line of the rest of the United States, including islands, is only 9,550 miles, thus making the coast-line of Alaska 2,450 miles more than the coast-line of all of the rest of the United States.

Of this great country the part known best and visited annually by tourists is that insignificant portion of southeastern Alaska which consists of the Alexander archipelago and its neighboring main coast-line, differing in its scenery, topography, climate, and native inhabitants, from the greater part of this vast territory.

It is fortunate, however, that this corner of Alaska is so easily and comfortably reached by the summer traveler, as, with the exception of the coast-line and inlets between Sitka and Kodiak, which includes the Fairweather ground and the St. Elias range of mountains, this portion contains perhaps the finest and most striking scenery and the largest and grandest glaciers in the territory, if not in all North and South America.

The U. S. S. *Thetis* was assigned in 1880 to the duty of looking out for the commercial and whaling interests of the United States in Bering sea and the Arctic ocean, to which was subsequently added the duty of assisting in the establishment and erection of a house of refuge in the vicinity of Point Barrow, the most northerly point of our Arctic possessions. The duty assigned to the *Thetis* did not include the protection of the sealing interests of the United States, nor of those interests enjoyed by the Alaska Commercial Company as the regular lessees from the United States of the Pribiloff group of islands. This was confided to the Revenue Marine Service of the Treasury Department.

The *Thetis* left San Francisco on the 26th of April, 1880, and after a detention of a month at Tacoma, upon the placid waters of Puget sound, awaiting supplementary orders, reached Port Tongue, in extreme southeastern Alaska, on the 31st of May, and Sitka, the territorial capital, upon the 2d of June. After a stay

of six days at the latter place the vessel left for the island of Unalaska, one of the Aleutian chain, which was safely reached, after a stormy passage, early on the morning of the 17th of June.

The revenue-steamer *Richard Rush*, commanded by Captain Shepherd, was found at anchor at this place, having arrived a few hours before the *Thetis*; she had entered upon the duty of patrolling Bering sea, between Unalaska and the Pribyloff group, for the protection of the sealing interests. The seals approach the hauling-out grounds and breeding places upon the islands of St. Paul and St. George in lanes, as it were, from the Pacific, reaching Bering sea by means of the various passages between the Aleutian islands, and converging as they approach the Seal islands, the position of which seems so well known to them. The "murderers," as the men on the sealing schooners are called who hunt them on their way north, shoot them from small boats, killing the many in order to procure the few.

Unalaska, or rather the village and harbor of Iliulik, upon the island of Unalaska, is the principal and most frequented harbor in the Aleutian islands, and from its position is a most convenient port for coaling, watering and provisioning en route to the Seal islands, St. Michael (at the mouth of the Yukon river), the anchorages in and near Bering strait, and the Arctic ocean. This harbor is the headquarters of all of the districts of the Alaska Commercial Company, and is the principal coaling and distributing station and rendezvous of their vessels in Alaska. The company here affords facilities in the way of buoyage, wharfage, etc., which are not only useful to their own vessels but of great service to government and other vessels whose duty or interests call them to these waters.

The revenue steamer *Bear* was to be met by us at Unalaska, in order that we could take from her any portion of the stores and material to be used in the constructing and provisioning of the house of refuge at Point Barrow that her commanding officer desired to transfer to us.

While awaiting the arrival of the *Bear*, the *Thetis* was watered and coaled and prepared for the northerly trip before her. An opportunity offered up by the delay was availed of to inspect the store-houses of the Alaska Commercial Company at this point. The most interesting of the store-houses was that containing the skins and furs collected in the various parts of the

district of which this place was the *dépôt*. The finest of the furs was that of the sea-otter, probably the most valuable fur in the world, a very superior skin of that animal having been sold at the great fur market in London for £170. Such otters are found in the vicinity of Unalaska and the outlying rocks and islands as far east as Kodiak, and are becoming more and more difficult to obtain, causing greater risk and hardships every year to the Aleuts, who hunt these animals as a principal means of livelihood.

Besides the otters the store-house held the furs of the beautiful silver-gray fox, and those of the blue, the cross, and the snowy white Arctic fox. There were also black and brown bear skins, beaver, and fur-seal, the latter, though the greatest and most profitable source of revenue to the Company, being by no manner of means among the more valuable of the raw furs.

To exchange for furs collected, either directly by natives or by independent traders, the Alaska Commercial Company has a large assortment of stores, provisions, and goods, worthy of a large country-store, or a Macy's in miniature, which are sold to the natives for money or in exchange for the furs they bring to the company. And just here can be seen the commercial aspects of civilization: as the natives become used to the luxuries and comforts of a civilized and semi-civilized state of life, their wants and their purchases increase and the securing of one otter-skin will not, as in times past, satisfy their wants or the requirements of their wives and families. Hence they become both greater producers and consumers, more otters are hunted for, and the Company is the gainer.

The houses in which the Aleuts and Creoles reside at Unalaska were found to be well built of frame, sufficiently large and fairly clean. The old houses of earth and sod standing near by show the great improvement that has been made of late years in the method of living.

Upon the 22d of June the Revenue Steamer *Bear* came in to the anchorage, and the *Thetis* and the *Beet*, once companion ships in the Greeley Relief Expedition, met again in the far north.

Upon conference with the commanding officer of the *Bear*, Captain M. A. Healy, it was found that he did not consider it desirable to break the bulk of his cargo and share the stores for the refuge-station with us; hence, being free to pursue our course, we left on the 24th of June for the island of St. Paul, one of the Seal (or Pribyloff) islands.

We arrived at St. Paul's Bay on the evening of the 21st of June after groping around in the heavy and almost constant fog and mist that enve op them. During our short stay at St. Paul we were able to see a drive of seals from a rookery and the killing, skinning, and packing, which followed; but what we found to be the most interesting was the visit to the rookeries, both from the inshore side and from boats along the sea front. The systematic partition of the groups, the formation of the harems, the exclusion of the young males, and the aggressive conduct of the older ones, all proved most interesting and novel. This, however, has been described so often that I will not here repeat it.

Leaving these islands, so unlike any others in the world, we proceeded to the north and west to St. Matthew Island, a large and uninhabited island in the middle of Bering sea. The object in visiting this island was twofold, the first being to ascertain if there were any shy-wrecked persons upon the island, the other being to verify the statement made upon the chart we possessed that the island was infested with polar bears. Upon our arrival and landing upon the island we found plenty of bear tracks and no recent evidences of the existence of polar bears. This was ascertained after honest and fatiguing endeavor to find them by parties of officers and men from the ship, who scoured the eastern part of the island, both upon the tundra and upon the low tundra, but without success.

St. Matthew Island is probably the southern limit of the solid ice in winter in this part of Bering sea, the ice below it to the southward and toward the Aleutian chain being made up of newer ice and broken pieces of winter ice. It is surrounded by the ice during seven months of the year, and generally enveloped with fog during the remaining five months. Winds and rains sweep over it during the summer, the low land being composed of wet, grassy tundra, while the higher elevations are formed of scoria and volcanic rock.

A large quantity of drift wood found piled up upon the steep oblique beach is probably come down the Yukon river from the interior of Alaska, there being no growth of trees upon this desolate island.

After leaving St. Matthew Island we stood over to the Siberian side of Bering sea, in order to ascertain the whereabouts of the wandering fleet, and, if possible, to gather some news concerning the fate of the whaling bark "Little John," a vessel that had been missing since the previous autumn.

Floter bay, Cape Tchaplun and St. Lawrence bay, upon the Siberian side, were all visited in turn, but without success, and I then determined to pass through Bering strait and enter the Arctic ocean. This was done upon the 3d of July, after a heavy snow-storm in the morning, followed, later in the day, by a fog so dense that we passed through the straits without seeing land on either side, or the Dirigible is made, in the middle.

Entering the Arctic we pushed on toward Point Hope, to the northward of which the "Little Ohio" had last been seen. On the morning of the 4th of July the land about Point Hope was sighted and soon afterwards we met our first ice, coming out in flocks from Kotzebue sound, stretching some distance from the shore and slowly moving to the northward and westward with the current.

Skirting as near this ice with the hope of getting around it to the northward of Point Hope, without success, we entered it, and after working through it for several miles with some considerable difficulty we finally cleared it and came to anchor off the native village at Point Hope, finding there two whalers who had just arrived via, and obtaining the news that the bark "Little Ohio" had been wrecked here by opposite the point where we were then at anchor. Taking on board, the next day, those survivors of the shipwreck who survived, remained at this place, we left for St. Michaels, near the mouth of the Yukon river, there to transfer the survivors to the steamer of the Alaska Commercial Company and to send the news of this sad disaster to the Navy Department and to the world. In passing through the ice outside of Point Hope the first polar bear of the season was sighted, posing upon a high floe of ice. A few shots settled his case and his body was fortunately secured, his skin now forms part of the collection at the Smithsonian Institution.

On our way back the steamer "Albatross" was sighted, and a heavy fog, then drift ice, prevented our approaching her.

Reaching St. Michaels we found there two steamers of the Alaska Commercial Company at anchor, besides several river-steamers, and a summer detachment of natives from the coast, miners from the interior, and traders and men from the Yukon, and here to meet their annual loads and supplies. In addition there was a party of government surveyors to determine the boundary-line, an account of whose early journey has been

given to the Society by Mr. Russell. There were seventy-three tents, by actual count, pitched about St. Michaels at the time of our stay, the abodes of these temporary residents.

St. Michaels is the most northerly settlement and trading post of the Alaska Commercial Company. It is the outlet of the Yukon river trade and is so the source of supplies for the country bordering upon the Yukon and its many tributaries, reaching in this way a portion of the Northwest Territory of the Dominion of Canada, west of the Rocky Mountains.

In the winter-time the post consists of the offices and store-houses of the Alaska Commercial Company, with a few residences for their winter employees, and a small native village.

Small, light-draught, stern-wheel steamers ascend the Yukon and its tributaries for a distance of 1,500 miles, reaching the mouth of that river in part by an inland channel and in part by sixty miles of outside coasting.

After a short stay at St. Michaels we proceeded to Port Clarence, where a large number of the whaling fleet were met, consisting of seven steam whalers, six sailing whalers, one tug-boat vessel, and a sailing tender. From the tender these vessels receive coal, provisions, and supplies, sailing back to San Francisco the old and new whaling season of the spring run.

Port Clarence is the last, as it is the best, harbor on the American side before reaching the Arctic, where no harbors exist worthy of the name, west of Herschel Sound. There is no native settlement of any size on the bay, but natives assemble here from the interior of the country and beyond to trade with the whalers in summer.

Leaving Port Clarence we ran to the northward by King Island to St. Lawrence Island, in search of a sailing tender that was long overdue, returning, after a six days stay off the village near Cape Prince of Wales, we again entered the Arctic ocean. As it was too early to go to Point Barrow we proceeded to Kotzebue Sound and Etaham inlet. In the vicinity of the latter place, every year, a summer rendezvous of natives occurs for trading purposes, the Eskimos from the Diomede and Cape Prince of Wales bringing articles of trade from Siberia, and the Eskimos from Point Hope bringing articles obtained from the whalers; these Eskimos are met by the inland natives from the rivers that flow into Holman Sound and Kanak Sound, principally from the Kwaja, the Noatak and Sagawak rivers. The nearest available

anchorage we found was Cape Blossom, from which place we visited the rendezvous and were visited in turn by the natives. We had now been enjoying for some time twenty-four hours of daylight, the midnight sun having lighted our way to and from Point Hope during our first visit to that place.

Leaving Cape Blossom upon the 24th of July we stood out of Kotzebue sound for two northward, running the greater part of the time in a heavy fog. We passed Point Hope on the 25th, Cape Iskhane on the 26th, and anchored off Cape Sabine early in the morning of the 27th of July. Near by was a very wide vein of igneous coal from which the Thetis had been coaled the previous year and to which the name of "Thetis coal mine" had been given. This had been worked during the present summer, also, and a party of natives who were encamped near by had furnished coal to some of the whalers.

Being now in the vicinity of a stream known to the natives as the Pitrogea, I went in a whaler's boat to examine its mouth and entrance, as this stream was known to a few whalers and did not exist upon any charts or maps. It was found to have but three feet of water in the bar at its entrance, but after crossing this a depth of six feet was found. The stream was found so full of bars and shoals that we could ascend but a short distance after entering it. The river and its narrow valley were very winding, the general course being north-west from its source to the coast. After the spring thaw, and the rains that follow, the stream rises to a depth sufficient for the natives to ascend and descend it with their light-swinging skin-boats for a distance of about forty miles. Its length is estimated to be over one hundred miles. The river had been explored the previous year by John W. Kelly, who was this summer employed on board the Thetis as the official interpreter, and to him I am indebted for the following description of the low-land extending upon the banks of the Pitrogea, and also of a secondary land stone but near the source of one of the tributaries.

— * * * * *

The low-land extends from the mouth of the river to the sea-coast, and its width varies from a few hundred yards to a mile. It is a very fertile soil, and its surface is broken up by a number of small hills and valleys. The low-land is very fertile, and its surface is broken up by a number of small hills and valleys. The low-land is very fertile, and its surface is broken up by a number of small hills and valleys. The low-land is very fertile, and its surface is broken up by a number of small hills and valleys.

light during the short polar summer. Gales have deposited particles of soil and debris of plants along with their seeds upon the surface of the ice to a depth of from four inches to a foot. The snow fall of winter soon vanishes before the June sun, while the light covering above the glacier preserves it intact. Vegetation is warmed into life in a remarkably short time, and the brown contrast by the receding snow is almost instantaneously transformed to a robe of green now adorned here and there with bright polar flowers, there being buttercups, dandelions, yellow pappi, bright astragalus, gentians, catfodils and marguerites. The latter are small and unobtrusive, making a showing in a modest way as if they wished to appear only to their winter flowers for their appearance among them. Like beautiful orphan girls, one cannot resist a compassionate tenderness of feeling toward them. But these innocent little flowers, cowering as they are upon which they grow, bloom in the polar garden with as much a right as the glaucous geranium. Besides them, there are the hardy grasses whose roots penetrate the light covering of soil to the rock bed, whence they derive their nourishment. A few Arctic willows are to be seen, but they only grow about a foot in length, and trail upon the ground. The Pinnegon river is gradually cutting into the glacier, receding from its opposite bank and leaving a bed of gravel. During the summer the ice melts away, leaving the protruding and above it has the eaves of a house, when it protrudes too far for the strength of the grass roots, it topples over into the river. At the freezing in its descent, pieces freeze from the overhanging soil to the river or below, forming a narrow portion four inches in extent.

ON A STONE HUT

On the highest peak at the source of Inkak creek, a southerly tributary of the Pinnegon, are the ruins of a large and smaller out-house, the like of which has never been met with in Northwestern Alaska. Above the grass line, past perpetual areas of snow, up where wild storm sweeps away ice, snow, as I said, were only a few gray lichens are to be seen, and, at some former time, has played its havoc. On the crest of the mountain there is a rugged molestone eight twelve feet high, cracked and shattered into flakes by the vigor of the polar winters. On the south side of this corbel, sheltered from the prevailing north winds, excavations have been made into the rock. Taking the corbel of rock

for one side of the house, the other side of the entrance has been built up with flat stones, laid up like bricks in masonry, but without mortar. Moss and soil have been in no probability used, were instead of mortar, but years of heavy work have blown it out from the crevices. The structure is round in shape, after the manner of a turret for a snow hut. This one is about seven feet in diameter. Facing its entrance is a smaller house of similar construction, most likely used as a shelter for guns. Water at runs have crumbled away the roofs of both so that they have fallen in, and the fragments of stones are partially covered with soil. The whole bears the appearance of age, and the natives have none found who have ever heard of it. From the summit of this peak a splendid view is obtained of the surrounding country, the Arctic ocean, and herds of passing reindeer.

Gold has been found near the Ptarmigan, at the head of the same creek and tributary, it being contained in small veins of rock, which exist in large quantities in that vicinity, there being from \$1.50 to \$2.00 worth of gold in a ton, the country is a little unproductive, however, and this, together with the shortness of the season, would prove it a very unprofitable venture.

Our party returned from the Ptarmigan with a few ptarmigan and ducks, and upon our arrival the ship was at once gotten under way and we stood to the eastward for Point Barrow. There we was constantly passed, but fortunately we scattered us out to form at a distance of ten miles to the eastward.

On the next day we enjoyed a superb Arctic summer day, and began to find the ice too thick to pass on the way to Point Barrow. A few small vessels were captured and passed, most of them vessels under sail. Knowing the danger to be soon in, and the icy caps of Captain Cook, we stood to the northeast, finding generally clear water, with scattered drift ice. Upon the shore we found great quantities of walrus, in some cases stretched at full length, some of which were killed. One large fellow remained so much terrified at our approach that he was supposed to be killed by a well aimed Irish potato caused him to recoil so quickly and off he flew and disappeared beneath the ice.

Passing on we passed Pt. Barrow at dusk in the evening, in the fog and rain, and came to heavy masses of ice over which a low fog had settled. With some delay and difficulty we worked out of both the fog and the ice and at five o'clock in the morning

sighted four vessels—steamers—at anchor off the village of Chukuyat Cape Smyth, 2 miles from Port Barrow, and two miles off Captain Bay's signal service meteorologic station of some years ago, the house then under way, the party being still standing by. One of the steamers proved to be our old friend the "Bear," which had passed for us northward when we had returned southward from the Arctic with the survivors of the "Plover." The other vessels were made out to be steamers also, and at seven o'clock we anchored near Taria, off the site determined upon for the house of refuge.

As long as the Bear had commenced to discharge her stores and materials, all of our facilities were at once used in rendering her assistance, our steam launch Achilles (now, as of yore, the chief of the Thetis) being busily at work towing boats to and fro, while our men and mechanics, with the Eskimos, were busily engaged in aiding the construction of the house of refuge.

Our arrival at Cape Smyth and vicinity of Port Barrow was on the 25th of July, the Bear having arrived on the 22nd of Saturday previous. While we were lying at anchor engaged in the erection of the house of refuge, the rest of the whaling fleet, both American and foreign, gradually arrived and came to anchor off the coast, reaching from Cape Smyth to Port Barrow. After a short stay the steamers went on to the eastward of Port Barrow following along the coast, which was a sight from Port Barrow, until they reached the heavy ice off Point Tangent. When the last of the whaling vessels had arrived, a fleet of fifty-seven vessels carrying the American flag had assembled within sight of the most northerly point of the United States, composed of steamers, barks, brigantines, and schooners. These vessels, manned by about twelve hundred men, I venture to say formed the largest assemblage of vessels and men under the American flag to be found anywhere during that year. I cannot speak too highly of the skill, seamanship, courage, and endurance of the whaling masters. They are a fine body of American

men. There was one of peculiar activity for the season, the erection of the house of refuge, the busy loading and unloading of stores (as well as the stores already on board), the visits of the Eskimos about their village (which was dotted with the white summer tents of the residents and the visiting Inuit Eskimos), and the clustering and traiking about the Whaling

the company's station (Ray's old station), gave a life and movement which was as northward as the season. Fortunately the weather continued favorable and the army ice kept off shore when the storms were heaviest, the wind then freshened, but communication could still be kept up and the work of erecting went on.

The site of the house of refuge is within a few hundred yards of Ray's old house and near the village, and its keeper, Captain Burton (an old New Bedford whaler) was busy in putting his house in order before the autumn storm should come on. During our stay at this place we were enabled to make a hydrographic survey of the anchorage, which demonstrated that the contour of the bottom is constant except as altered by the piling and planing done by the heavy ice ground and driven up by the pressure of the mighty ice pack, under the influence of northerly winds and gales.

And here let me say a word about the ice of this part of the Arctic Ocean. The ice in summer consists of floes and fields of various sizes, which are cemented together in winter by the young ice in frozen ice. No icebergs exist in this part of the Arctic, as there are no glaciers near the sea coast to form them. The shore along the entire Arctic coast of Alaska shows evidence of former glacial action, but the only glaciers to be found are in the southeastern part of the territory.

The Arctic pack, which never melts, consists of hard blue ice, made up of floes and floes of comparatively level ice, which are surrounded and interspersed with hummocks varying from ten to forty feet in height. These hummocks are formed by the broken and telescoped ice pressing together for the collision and grinding together of heavy ice-floes, the hummocks being often rounded and smoothed in outline by heavy falls of snow.

In the spring, under the influence of the prevailing southerly winds and northerly currents, the packs break off from the shore and move to the northern position of the northern edge varying in width with the season and the winds.

The shore ice, which remains fast to the coast line after the pack moves off, gradually breaks up as the season advances, and, becoming scattered, is taken to the northeastward from the vicinity of Port Barrow and northwestward from the vicinity of Herald Island and Wrangle Bay.

Sometimes a long line of heavy floes ice from the pack grounds in the shallow water near the shore during northerly winds,

pressed from behind by the force and weight of the entire northern pack. It is gradually forced up, pushing its way through the bottom, at the same time rising gradually along the ascent of the bottom toward the land. The effect of this slow wall of cold and relentless blue ice slowly rising and advancing upon those imprisoned between the ice and the shore is a most extreme and terrible thing that can be experienced.

The normal current running north through Henry's Strait takes a short distance to the north, and then, going through Lancaster Sound, runs along the mainland by Cape Seppia, Port Hope, and By Cape, to Port Barrow, at which point it goes off to the unknown northward; the other branch, to the north-westward along the Siberian coast, and thence to the northward toward Herald Sound. The walrus herds by the Charles rate vessel Shenandoah in Henry's Strait were found in the vicinity of Herald Sound.

The only portion of the whalers at the time actively cruising had gone to the eastward of Point Barrow. One that lay a sea-man named Tackbell returned from the Mackenzie in a whaler boat, and reported the ice conditions as equally favorable as far east as Mackenzie Bay, in the vicinity of which he had wintered. He was a sea-man belonging to the whaling station and had been reported to me by a messenger I met at St. Michael as having visited his station at Rampart House, upon the Porcupine river, a branch of the Yukon.

Upon the 5th of August the base of refuge was virtually finished, and as my orders were to devote my time to the whaling fleet, after the completion of this structure I concluded to cruise after a while with the vessel to the eastward of Point Barrow, leaving

four to remain with the vessels lying a mile or off Cape Smyth and Point Barrow. As Tackbell wanted to go east with the Eskimo galleon, I took him and his whale boat and whaling outfit on board, leaving Cape Smyth on the evening of the 9th. The ice in sight at the time was somewhat scattered, but plentiful, and entering it about nine o'clock we slowly stood on a course parallel to the land. We were occupied in working through this ice all night and all of the next day; it was not the pack ice but shore ice broken off from the vicinity of Point Tangent, By Cape, and Harrison Bay. At times we found it so closely packed together by current and wind that we had to turn back and work our way closer ashore. Three vessels under sail were sighted

during this time off Tangent point, and by this time we had also demonstrated the uselessness of Little Joe Tocklied as an ice pilot or prophet. The winds were very light and we had now gotten out of the strong current east of running off Point Barrow. On the night of the 20th we passed off the north of the Colville river, the water off us becoming very muddy.

The first important error found in the charts was a mountainous region was found here by the observation of the non-existence of the Pelly mountains. This observation was confirmed upon our return by the consistent testimony of the whaling masters who had cruised here, and the natives who hunt in the neighborhood. The mountains certainly do not exist where passed by the charts, and I judge that some small hummocks near the beach were mistaken for a far off range of mountains, when Dease and Simpson first explored the coast in 1858.

Early on the morning of the 10th of August we sighted the first steamer in water, and as we steamed toward her we started along some long low islands parallel to the coast line and stretching from the Return reef of Sir John Franklin to the mouth of the Colville river. Two islands, one being about three miles long, are not shown upon the charts, and as it having any known name were designated as the Thor islands.

The steam whaler was found to be the *Hibernia*, commanded by Captain Everett Smith, one of the most intelligent of the whaling men of the Arctic. He was en route off Return reef, which he was engaged to hunt by the tradition of the natives that the steamer was at that point that Sir John Franklin, in one of his earliest expeditions, had turned back while seeking the coast.

We left the coast from Mackenzie Bay to Point Barrow. After a long interview with Captain Smith, from which I gathered much information as to the ice conditions and the probable positions of the steamer when lost to the eastward, he returned and of his ship and the good ship *Thetis* once more turned her head to the eastward.

Soon afterwards another steam-whaler was sighted, made fast by a line of ice to our northward, we did not stop, but, exchanging courtesies, continued on our way. The ice seemed to be getting thicker and denser afterwards a third steamer was sighted, at

August 11, 1881. The steamer was the *Thetis*, and was sighted at the mouth of the Colville river.

August 12, 1881. The steamer was the *Thetis*, and was sighted at the mouth of the Colville river.

The steamer was found to be the wonder 11120, commanded by Captain Brooks, and the island, though nameless, was marked on a wonder cross, from which fact it was called Cross Island. Captain Brooks stated that he had been struggling with the ice to the eastward of Cross Island, the day before, in company with some other steamer-whalers who had left him and gone to the eastward, &c. &c. and turned back and anchored off Cross Island. I landed on the vicinity of the island, finding good water to the southward, but none on the Thetis to a short distance. I returned upon the west side. The wind shifting, our position became more in accord with the masses of ice coming toward us; the whaler left the main drift, sailed out into the open sea, and went fast to a high but rocky flow. Seeing no good place near by, I and I on with the chain on the steamer were obliged to leave in a moment. Heavy ice came in down and growing close by on both sides, we left our post at the ice-bergs to a heavy drift, where we rode out the gale very early in the morning, when we were obliged to move on, as the ice packed about our rubber. After moving again and again the water fell away and ice cleared up, and the ice began to scatter and disappear about the island, the look to the eastward looking more promising.

The next day at 3 pm the morning, in company with
went to school, we left the
the ice, and toward the north
and larger as we progressed in
and at 10 o'clock the boat stopped and we both ran a fast to a
very large, long, lampwork thin at least ten to twelve feet several
feet in length, and aground in 40 feet of water
and about mid after noon of the day we had
and the ropes are hung over the bows, a number of the
officers and men were on the ice all day paying for fuel and
snow fueling, while the others passed for their provisions. This
is the time that we were reported, as a steamship (it was the
passed) as being in a position of extreme danger, and the news
was taken to the outside world.

About 4 o'clock in the afternoon we started ahead with the Aduna; the "Ilene", now taking the lead, ran most of her way through some pack ice and reached another ice field going ashore, the Beane following very slowly after us. We continued forcing our way north. We got into open water by Long reef. At midnight we made fast to a small floe and, after an anxious night (caused by ice-floes

setting again at our stern anchor, we proceeded, followed at a long distance by the *Albatross*, which joined us in the afternoon and anchored here, and was at anchor there for the night. We found that the *Albatross* had been obliged to leave us and to return to her anchorage, not being her proper vessel, and her having to seek another road out, to the westward, of where we were anchored. As we ran from off Linnæa reef to Camden bay we skirted the beautiful ranges of mountains close to the coast known as the Franklin and Hannibal mountains, making an agreeable change in the topography of the shore, which had been low and monotonously flat since leaving Point Barrow and the vicinity of Cape Lisianski. We found here that the shore line was put upon the charts too far north as it possibly near Flanagan island, on the west side of Camden bay, was well inland of the coast line at 4 miles. Camden bay was a last wintering place of Collinson, of the *Enterprise*, upon his return from his voyage for Sir John Franklin, and here we felt in some degree of this. The *Enterprise*, whose crew was so pitifully killed and whose off-icers had so much to be said by our fellow voyager, McClure, as the destination given him of being the actual discoverer of the Northwest passage, and who was, indeed, with him, the body of men in 1850-1854, the first as well as the last to pass from the Pacific to the Atlantic, north of the American continent.

Upon a long point named Uvason point, and upon the neighbouring island known as Harter sound, are to be found, during the summer months, a number of Eskimos, who visit there for purposes of trade, similar to the Eskimos of the coast of Labrador. Here the Arctian and the Mackenzie rivers meet. The Eskimos from the vicinity of the Porcupine and Great rivers and whose winter residences and hunting grounds are at the Rampart Lake, are also to be seen here, and in some degree mix with the others. They are mostly professing Christians and are related to the Athabascans, or Black Mountain Indians, in family. There are no permanent settlements here or elsewhere between the vicinity of Herschel island and about Harrow. The country is sterile, affording but little upon which to live, the sea supplying little or no animal life in its waters. The Eskimos gave to this part of the Arctic ocean a native name which signifies *the sea where there is always ice*.

Early the next morning, August 14th, at 5 o'clock, we pushed on a company with the sleds, starting out of Camden bay and having a short time of barrier island to cross, mate with the natives. At noon, when it blizzing hard, the smoke of several steamers was seen to the eastward, and when they had come up we saw that it was two of the steam-whalers that had gone east. They were led by the steamer William Lawrence, commanded by Captain Albert S. Brown, probably the ablest and most active of the Arctic whalers. They were all in the company of the Thetis at that time, and I found that they had reached Mackenzie bay at the mouth of the Mackenzie river. The two missing ones, the Oregon and Thunder, had last been seen in the vicinity of Herschel island. The ice-conditions were reported to be better than those we had passed through. After reflection I considered it my duty, as it was my desire, to go on to the eastward to ascertain the cause of the detention of the two missing whalers.

Therefore I determined to run on day and night.

At 10 o'clock the conditions of travel at 1 o'clock the sun and began to appear in the sky. The threatening appearance of the weather detained us at first, but at 10 o'clock in the evening we were under way, and with our loads I started the good ship sailing again on her easterly course, followed in about half an hour by our old friend and companion, the Helga. Before leaving we had to take out the whale-boat with her and native friends, who had been joined at this point by the women of the family. The was a most interesting movement here, and as the weather was so stormy I in company of the whalers I left him in their company.

We found the shore higher as we progressed, and the mountains nearer the coast, as a result, the sea generally sets directly and in heavy masses on the shore without growing up, and this point has never been passed before by the whalers, but fortunately a wide lane was open. The sight of the mountains, standing so near shore and growing gradually was particularly impressive, and our inability to make a closer

exploration is to be regretted. So far as I can see, we have never penetrated these mountainous regions, which are known upon the

Report of the British Report at the mountains, being examined by Sir John Franklin during his last journey along the coast. The highest mountains are at the extreme northwestern

corner of our territory of Alaska, running also a course to the very line of the British America. We passed the migration point, where our boundary line reaches the Arctic ocean, early upon the morning of the 13th of August, and commenced again our cruising in British waters. The character of the shore remained the same. The mountains, however, showing little traces of snow, testifying to the way both to the extreme hardness of the winter and our approach to the verge of the Mackenzie. A few beluga huts were seen as we came up to the small gravelly island lying in the vicinity of the mouth of the Mackenzie.

It was perfectly good ground as we were in these waters, and the ship was steered by it as much as by the compass.

Three islands (the middle land, the knot) are the great necessities for navigation in this northern region, as the three R's are supposed to be good elementary schooling. At 12 o'clock in the morning Herby Island was sighted, the large island forming the western boundary of Mackenzie Bay, it was the island of my late former of the Mackenzie river. At 1:30 in the afternoon we were off the south-west end of the island that is some gravelly and new ground a long gravelly spit, thickly covered with heavy ice, blown from the Mackenzie river.

The island is about 300 feet high, and has a rough, outcropping granite surface, with some scattered patches of soil. It is a small appearance of former glacial action, and appears to be a small moraine covered with a black vegetable matter. The vegetation consists of grasses and small Arctic flowers, some of the white, delicate, color, and very short-lived.

Soon after we anchored a party was sent on shore to erect a cairn to mark our visit, it consisted of a board with some signs of the ship and the date of the visit in brass letters, under the staff supporting it the rear of a seal, a glass bottle the names of the officers and men of the ship. The Heluga joined us soon after our arrival, and when the party from shore had returned we got under way to continue our work for the two whales. Captain Brooks came on board the Tillicus and shared my perch and took out on the foretop, where his ship followed, in charge. I saw quite a number of seals at the north end of the island we saw a noble expanse of open water stretching to the northward as far as the eye could reach. The ice was still heavy to the south, and north-westward, but to the north, beyond the light scattering ice through which we were going, was clear sea, the waves washing in the light for Arctic sunshine.

We looked with eagerness to the sea which stretched, apparently, to the north pole, and then bent led to starboard into Mackenzie bay.

After we had been steaming from our first anchorage we reached the southern side of the island and found the two answering whistles going quietly at anchor, Captain Brooks giving a hearty and cheerful cry of *Good ho!*, when the vessels were seen and we were all pleased to see them safe and secure. We came to anchor close by them and the two whistles were soon hoisted. They reported that the *Ida* remained beached to wait for the return of whales from that near by seaward, but so far without any success. They had determined to remain until September, and contemplated two possible voyages to the north pole. Soon after we had anchored, at the same time, a ship with the greatest surprise and interest. They had not seen vessels before this summer, the first of their kind concerning the "Enterprise" and "Investigator" under Commodore A. D. B. and still surviving.

Soon after we had anchored, at the same time, a ship with the greatest surprise and interest. They had not seen vessels before this summer, the first of their kind concerning the "Enterprise" and "Investigator" under Commodore A. D. B. and still surviving.

A small, single anchor was found at a survey point near by our anchorage, capable of receiving vessels of less than 10 feet draught, this was a new discovery. It would prove a fairly good place for one of the largest freight steamers going up the year to use as winter quarters.

The waters between these islands and the main land were after examination found to be of a good and safe depth and proved sure to form a safe passage. A new and fair of three feet was found, and the ship was going out to anchor and flood.

While the boats were out we went ashore and found a very fine view of the island, but a beautiful view of the clear and pure water of Mackenzie bay, to the east and northeast, where the sea was deepest were the only, strong about the shallow north of the Mackenzie, and directly to the south were the Haida and the Kanaak natives, emerging gradually at the Mackenzie and the great plains which form the back bone of the American continent.

Natural Geographic Map

The temperature of the water and air was found higher upon this side of the island, and I have no doubt but that the climate of the vicinity of Mackenzie Bay is materially modified by the comparatively warm water running out to great distance from the Mackenzie river. The strong current running to the northward from the river would naturally sweep the ice out of the bay and to the eastward as far as the vicinity of Banksian Island and far extreme north on Axel's.

Where the ice is so full of crevasses is now a matter of conjecture. It is to be feared that the drift floes which were hauled on by us from this point, and from various points between here and Larned Island, are subject to something in the solution of the crevasses.

As the chances of being shut in by the ice were easily among the possibilities of the winter, and were in a very high degree, whose fate it is common for the helmsman to guard for the time, the whole question of our passage and retreat was gone over with the commanding masters. A retreat in the valley of the Mackenzie, the *Champion*, I was assured feasible, as retreat would be the only alternative.

As the chances of the ice were with me to the eastward, I determined to start back, in order to make my westerly passage easier. Leaving the boats, we got under way first to the northeast to put over our first drift float out of the reach of the influence of the waters raised by the ice which is met, and in the open water and northerly current of the Mackenzie. These floats were made of wood about two feet long and one or one and a half inches thick, and the names of the ship, the date, and the names of the party, cut on the face. In a cavity at one end of the float, plugged with soft wood, there was placed a copper

plate containing a letter requesting the helmsman to inform the U. S. Army Department of the date and place, the nearest U. S. Coast station, or the commanding officer of the vessel, the time and place where the float was found.

After making the float upon its unknown journey a boat was sent to the highest point of the island, and it was reported that the current ran east and northward. There was nothing to suggest that the water, coming from the north, was variable, and the western entrance to the Mackenzie was variable.

Following, as we had no other way, the waters of our own Champagne Bay, and I had reached the bay, and I had to look for the vessel.

of money on board, faced them with the big sea that lay before us
toward Bent Horn and ten westward.

The weather, however, was superb, clear, cool, and sunny, during which, while in the now darkening shades of the evening for the first time the moon appeared, surveying most beautifully the con-
vulsions along the coast and the fantastic shapes of the
ground below.

On the 17th we began to meet and overtake the whalers, who were delayed in the vicinity of Cambridge Bay, waiting for whales. Five were passed, some cruising and some fast to the windward. After coming along with them a half hour, finding them of no probable account, we kept on to the westward. The ice conditions were favorable and we sailed very good all day, making fast to the weather, off our own wind. I remained in the heavy group, on the morning of the 25th of August.

The water is always a subject of constant watchfulness on a steamer in this part of the Arctic, and not only makes the navigation and progress of the vessel, but also is it off and on, clear & stormy, calm & rough, fresh & brackish. A northerly wind of wind caused a down to push on, and passing on we stationed boats and again to be shorted on on the long and narrow island which now was a matter of the thick ice. Passing the mouth of the strait we steamed at a good rate of speed through Harrison Bay and there the wind was strong from the west, bringing up a sea with a good swell and a cold fog. The ice was being seen on reaching the open water, and on the 14th of August a heavy overcast, and a fog with a gale on, we found the westward, to be a resting ground of the sea.

There being no portage, from the west side of Point Harrow, I started fairly soon as to get to the point and by 10 o'clock found the place where I should take a narrow, single way leading to the shore down a hill that is out of the forest between the shore and the narrow and I was soon entering it. But it is better to cut back than to go as we did, as far as the about water was, all was to go. At this time we sighted no many as eight polar bears on the ice, and this was no time to hunt "one" but as we had our food we turned through to the pack and as we were never again led into water because for us, finding from my perch that the ice seemed even safer to the west, I determined to start back to the shore with the

more open water we had left by the lead we had now through, but it was too late: the lead had closed and we were prisoners in the pack. There being no other place to go, I reluctantly selected the largest pen, or pocket, got out a rope-anchor, and made fast to a heavy floe, to await further developments. It was found to be in slow motion, and four times during the night we had to move to avoid the heavy floes closing in around us. At last, however, the progress of the pack, and we were close prisoners in the heavy pack which had set down with the wind, now northerly, between Point Barrow and Pilot Taper.

In the words of the Agent at Marquette of Cambridge:

"The ice was here, the ice was there.

The ice was all around.

It cracked and grew thick. The ice was all around.

Like moose in a swamp.

My incessant watchfulness, a most constant movement, & vigorous rowing, faithful working of the engines, and (most important of all) a favorable shift of wind, the good ship, under Divine Providence, escaped without damage or accident. Fortunately without easy run of land ice, but twenty-five miles from Point Barrow refuge station, I had no undue anxiety for us, but I have no hesitation in stating that the readiness, at once, and unhesitatingly of the officers and men of the ship showed in bringing out of the ship intact from the ice pack, after nearly five days' imprisonment, and the them to great credit from the proper authorities and justify their commanding officer in the present expression of his high appreciation of their conduct and his warmest regards toward themselves.

About noon of the 25th of August, after a night of hard rain, we anchored off the west side of Point Barrow, greeted by salutes from the wharves anchored there and by the hearty congratulations of the masters, who soon came on board and escorted us to the ship.

After having been out to the westward, after having been shut in by the ice coming down on Point Barrow and Cape Smyth for several days, during our absence. The few wharves that remained had been watching us from their cranes' nests during our imprisonment, but were unable, of course, to afford us any assistance, each ship having to work out her own salvation. Companion vessels array of great service only in case

of damage or abandonment. Fortunately, the steam whalers remaining behind us did not have the pack set down upon them in the shallow bights in which they were cruising, and the long continued north easter which aided us in our escape enabled them to find leads to get through, not very long after we had escaped. We remained at Point Barrow for a week or so, they and all returned, except the two most easterly ones, left at Herald island. As their return was so uncertain, at the end of a week I dropped down to the house of refuge at Cape Smyth, making provisions to fix the deficiency in their stores, and went to the westward, first going to Ivy Cape to erect a needed beacon as a warning of the vicinity of Blossom Shoals.

Leaving this vicinity on the 5th of September for the northward and westward, and rounding Blossom Shoals, we stood to the north, reaching the supposed vicinity of the edge of the ice pack that night. As the nights were now dark we lay to until morning, when the rapid fall of the temperature of the water and the lessening wind gave indications of its proximity, and a half hour's steaming brought us to the ragged white surface of the pack. Along this we started, having recorded our ~~highest~~ north position 72° N. latitude.

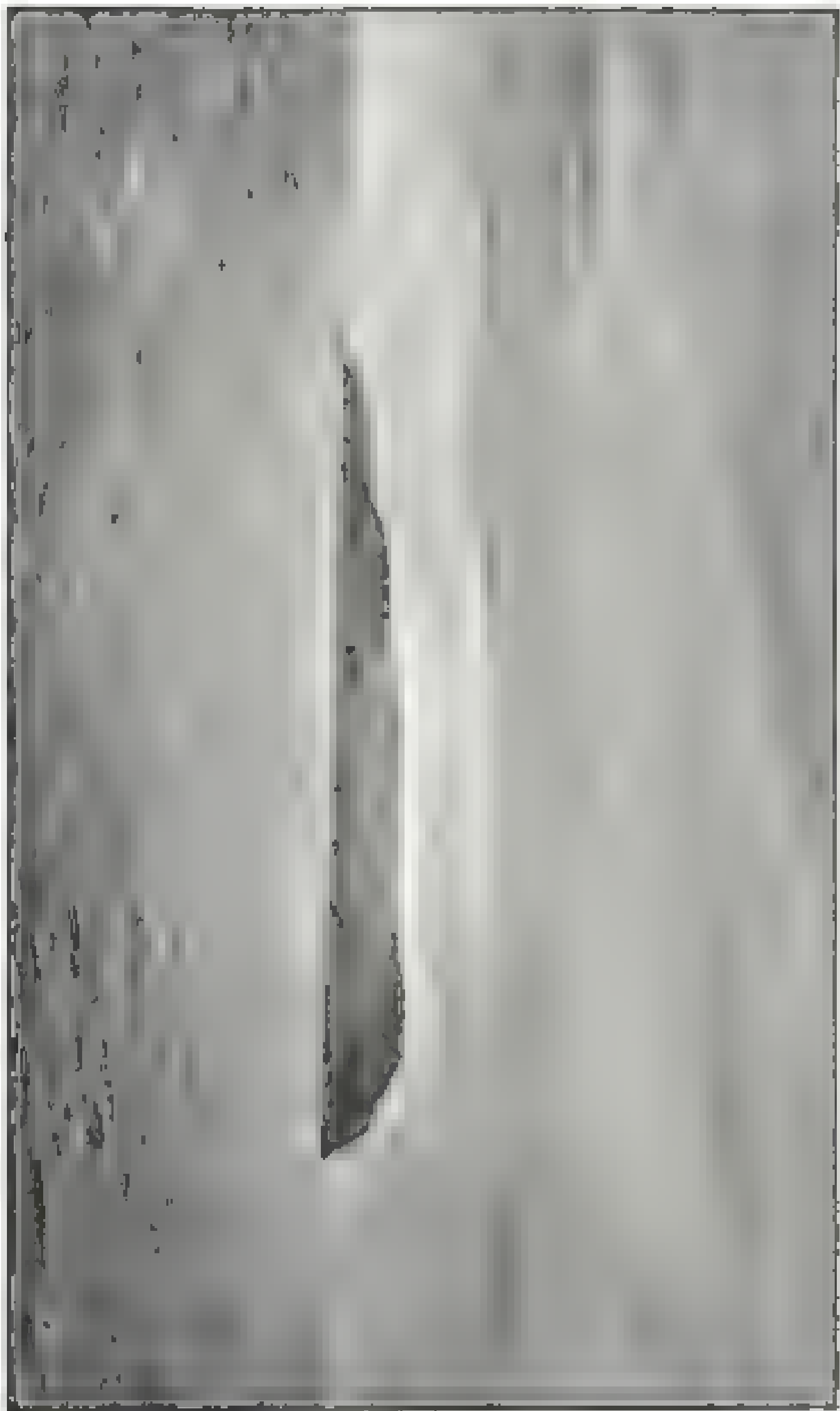
All of that day and the next we continued our course, sighting a portion of the sailing fleet of whales on the 7th. Communicating with them of our proposed movements and whereabouts during the rest of September and the beginning of October, we then stood to the westward. I must not forget to mention an interesting incident that occurred. A schooner stood down to us from the fleet, and was recognized as the schooner Jane Grey, picked up by the Thetis when under the command of my predecessor in the previous summer in the ice—abandoned. She had been righted, pumped out, repaired, and restored to her owner, who had literally sold his farm and put us on into the vessel. As he came within hail our attention was given him, but I noticed that he fairly danced with impatience during the delivery, which was augmented far at the end of the message by his bringing out his men, who were stationed behind the foremast, and giving hearty and prolonged cheers for the Thetis which fairly rang in the silent Arctic air. To this we responded and then went on our way.

We now left the pack and started through open water for Herald island, which we sighted at half past twelve the next day,

the 5th of September; as we approached it closely the bareness and forbidding appearance, which had been concealed at first sight by the bluish haze of the out ice, became very marked. Its sides were almost inaccessible, except from the western end, and it was free from ice, an almost exceptional state of affairs. In close proximity it is impossible to reach it, and, even more than Point Barrow, it may be said not of the world by one that refuses to move during the short

We passed the island late in the afternoon within a comparatively short distance, standing on to the west with the hope of seeing Wrangel land before dark. At half past five land was reported ahead from about, and soon the high snowy peaks and mountainous outline of Wrangel land was sighted from deck. It stood out beautifully in the late Arctic afternoon, and as we approached it more closely its outline became more and more fantastic and beautiful. At sunset we were about five or ten miles distant, and at dark, as we turned to the south east for Point Hope, we exchanged hearty congratulations upon our successful passage from Mackenzie Bay to Wrangel land. Arriving at Point Hope upon the evening of the 10th of September, we found that many of the trading parties had returned from the interior, and preparations were going on for the winter season.

The natives of Point Hope, like the Eskimos generally of north-western Alaska, have no tribal or other form of government except what exists by control of the head man, *summak*, or chief, whose superiority arises from his wealth and influence. The previous chief and yes a little that made him a terror to the community. His rule was by force and not by the influence of the rifle, which was his only power comparison. After a career distinguished for license, murder and robbery, he had come to a timely end by being assassinated by the brother of a wife he was tormenting to death. Since his death, up to the time of our stay at September, anarchy had prevailed. On account of the very different treatment received by the survivors of the wrecked whaler "Little Oona" from the Eskimos at Point Hope to a previous winter, I determined to appoint a head man or chief who would be charged with the responsibility and duty of caring for any shipwrecked persons or destitute natives. Accordingly, I was appointed by me and whose appointment was afterwards confirmed by the governor of Alaska, has married the niece of the previous chief, and was no best was a man and hunter of



the district. He had been in the employ of the whaling station established the previous year at Point Hope, and had been satisfactory in all his dealings with the whalers. His wife was a very superior woman, and their desire for civilized usages was so great that a bread-pan of tin, some granite-ware bowls, and candles, were given and eagerly accepted as contributing to make their domestic lives more comfortable and civilized. An urgent request was made for a cooking-stove, which I promised to give them if I should return the following summer.

The Eskimo lamp which serves as a light, and to some extent as a stove, is a crescent-shaped stone vessel, with a shallow trough scooped out. This is a receptacle for the whale-oil, the wick being some native moss laid along the edge of the lamp and trimmed from time to time, the supply of oil being kept up by a lump of tallow suspended over the lamp. The light being indifferent, candles are welcomed as a great improvement and a marked relief to the over-taxed eyes of the men and women during the long nights of the Arctic winter.

During our stay at Point Hope we found much of interest in connection with the Eskimos living there. Their long winters gave them an opportunity to keep alive their traditions in their assembly meetings in the community hall, and they give an account of their early days in this way. In the beginning the people had loads of ravens, with eyes in the upper part of their breasts. All the winter at this time was wrapped in gloom, with no change of day and night. At that time there lived a powerful chieftain on top of the highest peak. In his hut were six or seven two-bale lads who were valued very precious and were therefore carefully guarded. One day, the chief being absent and the guards asleep, some children who had long admired the beautiful lads knocked them down with a stick as they rolled across the floor of the hut and down the side of the mountain. The noise awakened the guards, who hurried after them, while their extraordinary beauty attracted the attention of the people, who also rushed after them, a wild struggle ensuing for their possession, thus ended in the breaking of the ice. Light sprang from one and darkness from the other; three spirits of light and darkness claimed each man as his own, neither giving up, a compromise was made by which they agreed to an alternate rule. The violent struggle for the mastery so disturbed the world that the assembly of the people and the surface of the

earth were both changed. Light being upon the earth, men began to catch walrus in the sea and to carry the flesh and bones to their mountain homes. One family was seen over the country recently risen from the sea came down upon Point Hope finding vegetation sprouting up and whales abundant, they built a hut and made it their home. From this originated the settlement at Point Hope. Their modern history goes on in this way: Point Hope being favorably situated for whaling and having the sea and walrus and for obtaining the reindeer it naturally became a center of power and population. In the latter part of the eighteenth century, as well as can be determined, the village now at Point Hope, known by the natives as Tigara, had a population of 2,000 souls, with six council houses. At that time the Eskimos residing upon the Nootak, or Inland river, began to encroach upon the territory of the Tigaramutes.

Tranquillity came to the place about the beginning of this century a great land- and boat-fight took place between the Tigaramutes and the Nootakimates near Cape Beppung, in which the Tigaramutes were defeated and forced to yield a large portion of the territory formerly controlled by them. So crushed were the Tigaramutes that they lost one-half of the population, which led to the gradual abandonment of all the out-standing villages. Since that time the population has gradually increased, the increase in being materially aided by the contact of white men, who are principally represented here by the crews of the whaling ships, not less rising during the early summer.

Let us count Eskimos are short in stature, the average height of ten men measured at Point Hope being 5 feet 3 inches, and of ten women, 5 feet 2 1/2 inches. The legs are short in comparison to the length of the body and are always much bowed, this being due to the manner in which they are carried in infancy upon their mother's back, the legs being brought tightly round under the mother's arms. The feet and hands of the women are generally well shaven and small.

All of the Eskimos have good teeth, but as they are subjected to severe usage they deteriorate in every way. They are used as substitutes for planes, carpenter's vises, and cutting machines, they are used in drawing boats, mending kumuk, holding the ends of a cord, mending boot-soles, and stretching skins. When they become uneven from constant use in this way, the unevenness is corrected by a leveling down by means of a file.

state, until they finally reach a level too low for mechanical purposes.

Between sixteen and twenty-two years of age the male natives have their lips pierced at the inner corner of the mouth for labrets*. The incision is made and at first supports pointed pieces of ivory are put in; when the wound heals the hole is gradually stretched by inserting larger labrets until, finally, no labret is necessary.

The poorer natives wear ornaments made of common gravel, and glass ornaments which they obtain from ships and coast traders. The structure of a W. necklace and amulet is very useful for the purpose. The poorer ones have again labrets, the most valued ones, however, being made of walrus ivory.

Amulets, nearly all made of walrus ivory, with a spruce gum or tallow from the interior. We could not ascertain where the turquoise or pearls of the neck were obtained. I am told to say they have always been in the country, and set the matter only with the greatest reluctance.

Tattooing is general among the women, and is apparently a custom of great antiquity. At the age of six the areolar space is drawn down the center of the arm from the lower lip downward, and here is always being used as coloring matter. At twelve years the areolar space is painted with fat oil, and a tattoo is made from it to the areolar space. But I was not told of you by giving other particulars.

On the 10th of September the *Thetis* left Point Hope for the south, the ruggedness of the Arctic ocean having forced us on strong winds and gales from the north-east and compelled us to move from the north-west to the south-west side of Point Hope where better protection and anchorage had been found. On the 21st of September we passed out of the Arctic ocean and through Bering Strait, reaching the Bering sea again on the 28th of September. After remaining there and the beginning of October the ship returned to Alaska, and after a prolonged stay in the waters of southeastern Alaska we finally reached the Golden Gate of San Francisco, shortly after midnight on the 5th of December.

* *Labrets* is the name used along the coast for the ornaments worn by the natives.

The cruise of the *Thetis* was remarkable in several respects, among others in that, thanks to the open season, her march to the and successful battling with the ice-pack, she was enabled to reach Mackenzie bay, in British North America, the first government vessel to carry the American flag in those waters. She also made the long stretch from Mackenzie bay to Herald island and Wrangel land in one season, never before done, and she had the honor of being the first vessel of any kind to follow the entire main coast line of Alaska from Port Tolyas, in extreme southeastern Alaska, to the northern point, on the Arctic ocean.

THE LAW OF STORMS, CONSIDERED WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE NORTH ATLANTIC

By EVERETT HAYDEN

Abstract of a paper read before the National Geographic Society, Nov. 15, 1899

In preparing an abstract of this paper it is, of course, difficult to adhere very closely to the original, inasmuch as that was illustrated by forty-five lantern slides, while it is only practical to present a few plates with this abstract. I may therefore be permitted to give only a general outline of the subject, with perhaps a more detailed discussion of one or two of the most notable recent hurricanes off our Atlantic coast.

The term "law of storms" is applied, to a certain extent, to rules that show how to govern the action of the master of a vessel, when he is compelled to avoid the approach of a dangerous storm. It will be seen, however, that this subject, like the rule itself, is somewhat vague. So many considerations enter as factors in the question that it is wholly impossible to lay down any rules that shall be applicable alike to a high-powered, well-manned steamship, and to a heavily-laden, poorly-equipped and short-handed sailing vessel. Disregarding such differences of conditions (which are, of course, of vital importance in each and every case, but which cannot be discussed, in a brief general essay), the two grand divisions of the subject may be compared to *grand strategy* and *field tactics*. As this I know that a broad, comprehensive review of the whole subject of ocean storms—their regions, seasons, size, severity, and tracks—is one very important part of the navigator's duty as a professional navigator, a voyager; and, secondly, the handling of his vessel when actually in the fight—the coolness, clear-headedness, and trained experience that utilizes every resource of the best seamanship and navigation in a fearful struggle with the fury of a hurricane—all of these are also an essential part of the education of the ideal sea-captain.

Thanks to the progress of meteorologic research it is comparatively easy nowadays for anyone to get a very good general idea

of the great hurricane regions of the globe, and the seasons when these dreaded tropical cyclones prevail in each of these regions. The student of this subject is enthusiastic and practical in his studies, and that it is universally known and recognized that the hurricanes are the summer storms in each of the great hurricane regions. In the tropics, the trade winds blow westward, and in the temperate zones, and blow eastward in higher latitudes. The winds coming gradually from the equator; moreover, the exact distance between hurricanes north and south of the equator is as follows: In the Northern Hemisphere the rotation of the cyclone is *against* the hands of a watch and in the Southern, *with*. The great hurricane regions are the West Indies coast of China and Japan, Bay of Bengal (especially in May and October, at the time of the change of the seasons), and the South Indian Ocean (about Mauritius). Less visited regions are the South Pacific (East of Australia), the North Pacific (west of the Mexican coast), and the Arabian Sea. In planning a distant voyage a navigator would therefore consider the hurricane regions through which he must pass, just as he takes into pre-vailing winds—the trades, monsoons, and ocean currents.

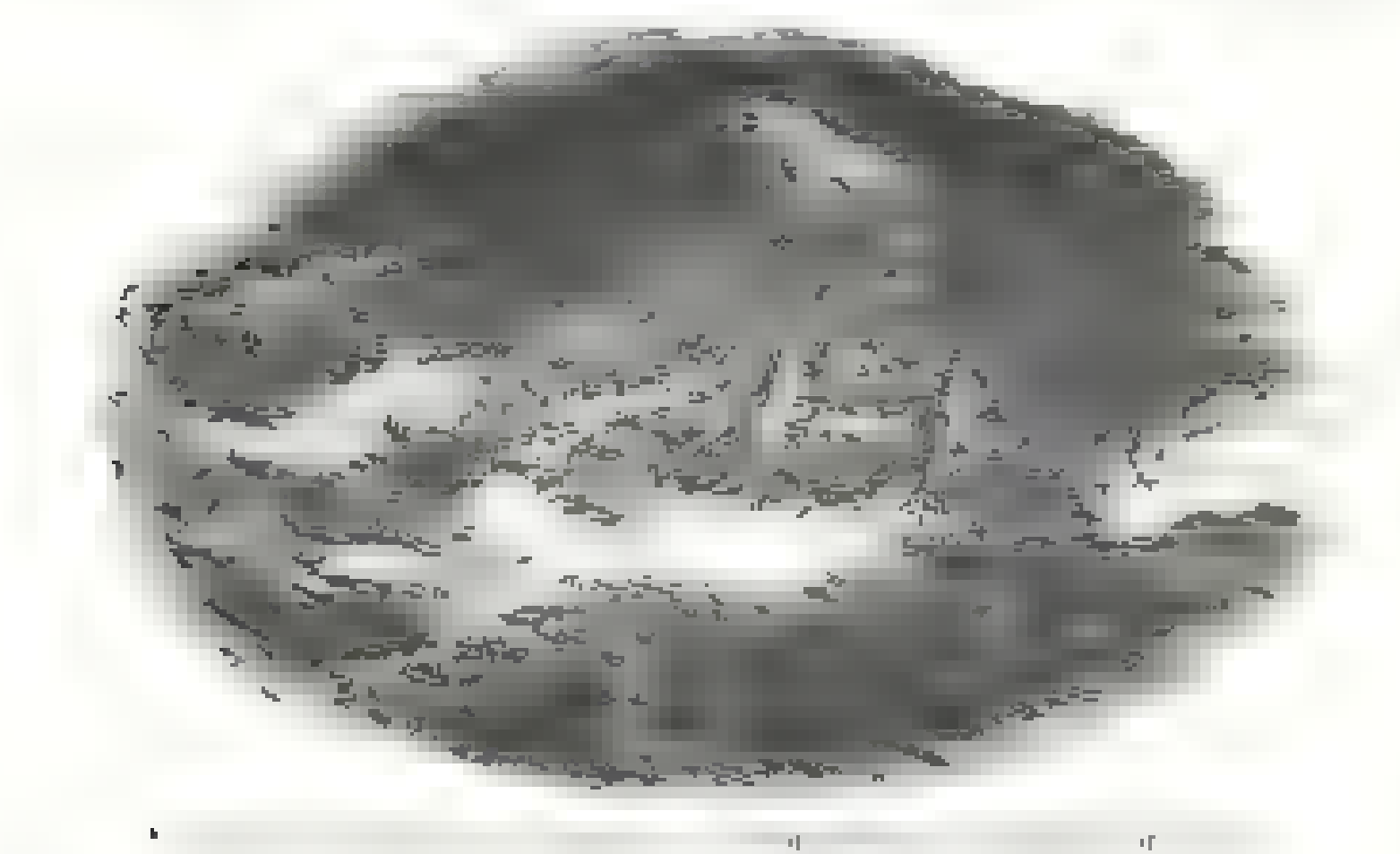
The making of a map is a different matter, a very different sort of a thing from this general survey of the entire field, and, without the numerous facts and theories that we all associate with a good officer of the navy or a scientific mariner, no more theoretical knowledge can avail much. And yet this is one of those cases where practice and theory should go hand in hand, and theory as something vague and unseen, but theory as based upon a firm foundation of observed facts. If a vessel encounters a hurricane certain conclusions can be drawn from observations of the color of wind, the fluctuations of the barometer, the appearance of the clouds, and the direction of the ocean swell; the master of that vessel will undoubtedly draw such conclusions, and store them away in his mind as part of his fund of experience upon which to base action at some future time. But if he can consider his own observations, able from mind to connection with the observations made on board many other vessels that encountered the same storm, and modify or verify his conclusions by such comparison, there cannot be a doubt that the lesson will be of far greater value. Sailors lead a rough life, and their training is often acquired by experience alone. Moreover, there are certain things that tend to discourage effort on the part of junior

officers even on board naval vessels: they run so that their duty is not to originate errors but to execute them and sooner or later they get out of the habit of reflecting upon the action taken to avoid a storm or maneuver in one, not knowing at the same time a considerable error had to the action that was taken, and yet always having anything brought before them to their attention to decide with certainty whether the action was well-considered or ill-considered. Upon finally assuming command themselves they are not,

therefore, as well posted as they might otherwise have been. I must to a large degree to explain the admitted fact that comparatively few masters of vessels are well posted in certain very important and I think the real law of storms, as it was discovered by Heddfield and enforced by Keel, Fitzinger, Thom, and other nautical writers. In fact, of all the navigators of various nationalities who have charge to-day of the commerce of the world, probably four-fifths are wholly ignorant of the progress that has been made in this direction in the past fifty years. That much is the fault is not, in my opinion, wholly their fault: it is owing to the fact that far too little attention has been paid to clear, forcible, and convincing explanation; it is the fault of the teachers, no less than the scholars,—of meteorologists who take over the words of their auditors, instead of stating facts and conclusions in a way to command attention and respect from the practical men who furnish the data, and who deserve some tangible results in return for their long years of voluntary observation.

It is difficult to put this matter very simply and clearly, but not far far with the conditions that govern the management of a vessel in seas, and I shall only attempt to do so in a very general way. It should be understood, first of all, that a hurricane is an enormous whirlwind, so large, in fact, that its circular nature was generally recognized only about fifty years ago. At the immediate center of the whirl there is a calm space, from five or ten to forty or fifty miles in diameter, generally with blue sky and bright sunlight. Within a short distance of this central calm, the wind blows with frightful violence, and here a vessel is driven along in absolute helplessness, enveloped in midnight darkness, buried in a flying mass of foam and spray, with every part of the vessel struck by the elements. The core of the hurricane, as this region has been called, is small, relative to the entire area, and it thus happens that a few miles may make all the difference between a upwreck and safety. The ques-

tion is, then, to avoid getting into the core, or heart, of the bar means. It is evident enough that if the wind blow in a strictly



the bar direct on around the center, the bearing or direction of the center must be at exactly right angles (right ported) to the right or left of the direction of the wind. For example, if a storm blows from the north, the direction of the center must be at right angles to the direction of the wind, that is, to the right of the direction from which the wind blows. If a hurricane off our coast, for instance, is the wind be N.E., at Hatteras the center would bear forward to the exact rule N.E. (considering, first, that the storm which has a progressive motion along a path, or each of our weather at Hatteras, but the N.E. wind from the north, with no shift or change of direction, it is equally evident that the center of the storm is approaching directly toward that point. It is a more obvious fact, a shipmaster would naturally see that his vessel was in a position of great danger; and while the best thing to do would be to run before the wind, thus getting out of the way of the approaching hurricane. This simple case will explain pretty clearly I think how rules were at once formulated. As the field had proven too dry, or

Without going further into this subject, mentioned a point rule perhaps the most important of the rules—the rule of the low variety from the fact that subsequent to

search, based upon careful observation and the accurate charting of hundreds of reports from vessels in similar storms in various oceans, proved conclusively that the wind in a hurricane does not blow in strictly circular whirls, but rather spirals inward, so that with a NE. wind off Havana the center bears probably S. S. E., or even South; evidently this is a matter of vital importance to the navigator, and all the old rules should be remodeled on such a basis. It is known, in fact, actually the fact, and in no case nothing could be worse than to run directly before the wind; at any event it would be dangerous, and in the case of a slow moving eye one might really lead the vessel directly into the eye of the hurricane. This is known to have been the case in many instances, and vessels have thus been drawn into the inner whirls of destruction and kept there for several days, making one or more complete revolutions around the center before they could extricate themselves. In fact, they might never have gotten out, if the storm itself had not moved off and left them.

The first of the seven painting plates, entitled

WEST INDIAN HURRICANES, AND OTHER NORTH ATLANTIC STORMS,

gives a brief and yet complete resume of what is perhaps the best modern practice. In these brief statements the attempt has been made to put concisely, intelligibly, and *completely* (for one word but read each and every word now as carefully as they were written), the very latest, most important, and best-established facts, with which every navigator should be familiar. The paragraph entitled "Inland or land wind belt," for instance, is very important. A close consideration of the author's expression in these few lines may prevent a serious mistake that might be made by a too rigid adherence to the old rules. The rule is as follows: It has been proved by Mr. Irwin, from his studies of West Indian hurricanes, that the S. E. trade winds blow toward a hurricane rather than at right angles to the direction of the center, and it is therefore unsafe to assume that the center bears at right angles to the wind; or that, because the wind is from the S. E. the center is to the N. W. without any more.

or is approaching directly toward it.

This principle may be easily be explained to be, if in similar storms in other regions, as at Aberdeen, or a thorough study of

the whole subject, has shown that such is the case, although he states that "the position of this belt [of intensified trades] differs considerably from place to place, so that a special set of rules are necessary for each country." It seems to me, I must say, that in the absence of such special rules the law may safely be assumed to be general; its importance to navigators is certainly very great, and its principal effect must be to urge the greatest caution in making any attempt to cross the track of a hurricane, from the dangerous to the navigable semicircle.

The next plate,

THE HURRICANE OF NOVEMBER 25, 1888.

is a very instructive illustration of an actual hurricane, and one of the most severe on record off our Atlantic coast. The spiral lines have been added to bring out conspicuously the wind-circulation, and several features well at once attract attention—the elongated shape of the storm, along a north and south line (the direction of most rain), the wide region where there is a southeasterly gale (exactly analogous to the belt of intensified trades); the long sweep of northeasterly winds along the coast; and the marked variation from a strictly circular wave. The right-hand side is the dangerous semicircle, and it is here that the navigator is called upon to decide whether he shall dare make the attempt to run before the wind and cross the track of the storm; the left-hand side is the navigable semicircle,—not very *navigable* in this particular case, we may well believe, with no sea-room to the westward, a fearful N. N. E. gale, and a terrific sea. This is a case where every resource of seamanship and navigation may fail to save a ship, as the case of the steamer p. "Sumner" and a dozen other strong vessels, with all our best laws and testimony. Let me quote a few lines from a landing report by Captain Drew, of the American ship, "Sea Witch" (this vessel's position is plotted on the chart about lat. 34° N., long. 74° W.): "A Hurricane from N. E.; our position a perfect sea, blowing heavily and filling the decks with water; an awful gale, the worst we have ever had—how wild it wild? At 8 p. m., the sun out a moment through the thick sky. Nov. 26—Still blowing a hurricane, with awful squalls of rain; the seventh day of the gale. No side-sights can be had; the binoculars go out as fast as we can get at it. One blast from the north blew our brand-new lower-masttop-sail away like brown paper. We performed

the critical moment of weather ship, with averted face toward us, we were "hammering." Verily, there was "out of the jaws of death," and probably there were few more sincere thanksgiving services than those on board this vessel on Nov. 20th, 1899, as recorded by her log. One other report may be referred to here, and is of especial interest. It is from the *London Steamship*

London, Nov. 20th, 1899. "At 10 a. m. the wind was S. S. E., force 8, and the storm center was moving directly toward her. We learn from Captain Crosby's report that by noon, local time, the wind was strong from S. S. E. at 40 m. h., a land gale from east now coming, and midnight, barometer falling very rapidly. Nov. 20th, very heavy gale from N. E., ship heading bow to sea; noon, wind east, barometer 29.67, 3 p. m., wind N. N. E., 30 m. h., barometer 29.60, height, W., 28.70. This report illustrates the experience of a vessel close to the line of action, swept of wind from S. E. to N. N. E., and sustains very well the sparrows drawn on the chart, just where there is an accumulation of data on the coast itself.

Lack of space does not allow of further details, and I must go on to the next page.

THE ST. THOMAS-HATTUMAS HURRICANE OF SEPT. 4-12, 1899

This plate is copied exactly from a Supplement issued with the Pilot Chart for October, 1899 (published Sept. 24th), with only the addition of the tracks of the two storms (as indicated by later data) and the tracks of a few vessels (see small charts dated Sept. 3, 4-7, 10). Considering the early date of publication, the work, exposure of ground covered by the plates, and the essential accuracy (as indicated by later data) it must be acknowledged, I think, by anyone who is at all acquainted with the difficulties incident to this sort of work, that this Supplement to the Pilot Chart fits more closely to the truth in this matter than we could probably hope possible under similar circumstances in any case out of ten. It is clear that material conclusions drawn at such an early date, it could not have been a matter of surprise, although this prompt publication would still have served a most valuable purpose in interesting navigators to contribute data likely to help us in establishing the facts. Indeed, the following quotations from the Pilot Chart and Supplement illustrate exactly what was desired, and what was actually accomplished

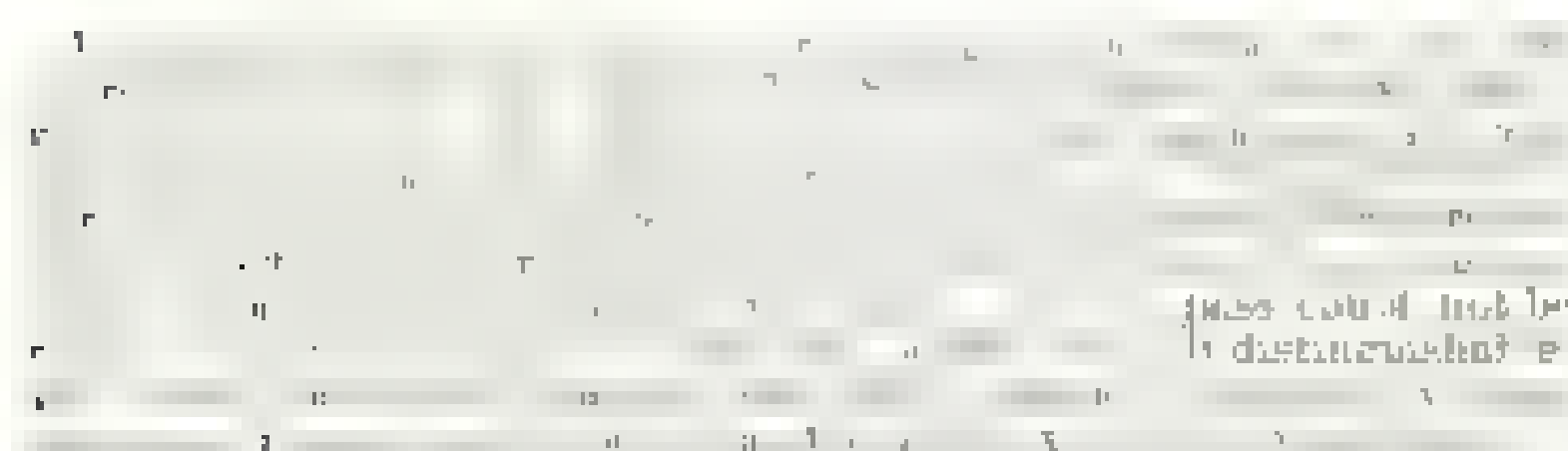
by this publication. "This preliminary publication, issued two weeks after the storm reached our coast, was. the official report that office receives from masters of vessels in the efforts to collect and at the same time regarding marine meteorology. It is desired to collect as complete data as possible regarding this storm, in order to publish a final report, and the present publication will be useful as a good working basis for a more complete historical study of the hurricane." Also, "special attention is called to the fact that this preliminary publication is only intended to give a brief outline of the facts as indicated by data received up to date of publication." Moreover, the name, nationality, and rig of every vessel whose report had been received in time to be used was published, and every statement made in the accompanying text was based on an exhaustive study of all material.

It is interesting to note how slightly the very complete data now at hand have modified the hastily-prepared history, and how the circumstances urge a more quick work and prompt publication, before that storms and other conditions have attracted interest and directed attention elsewhere. The ~~re-~~ reconstructed of the two storms as plotted on the first title chart, shows that it moved more rapidly than was anticipated, and occurred farther north. The fact is, its very existence was not even suspected till *the morning before* the final draft of the maps was made, and then only because the German steamship "Doveron," from Baltimore for Brazil, suffered such damage from the hurricane on Sept. 21, 1900, and called Sept. 22, for position) that she was obliged to run in to St. Thomas for repairs, and our friend, Mr. M. A. Tarter, forwarded her report by the first steamer to New York. The following is a brief extract from this report, beginning at 10 P. M., Sept. 21: "For hurricane, ship lying in trough of sea, laboring heavily and shipping much water. Cargo is lost; jettisoned 100 barrels of flour and 40 tons of coal. Brake steam steering gear and wheel found rudder adrift, 2 feet of water in the hold, foundations of engines seriously loose and getting worse. Here we for St. Thomas."

It is impossible, in the space at my disposal, to refer even briefly to the reports of the few vessels whose tracks are plotted on the charts, the starch steamship "Euremauer," foundering in the heart of the hurricane on Sept. 21, eleven of her crew of thirty escaping in an open boat, and of these only seven surviv-

ing that fearful drift of twenty-three days; the "U. S. pot," between the two storms and escaping both, the "Laser," from the tropics to Black Island, and the way to the grasp of the hurricane, without a sight of sun, moon, or stars, to fix her position, the "Ada Harley," rolling in the long swell off Hatteras and withstanding the early indications of the approaching storm for nearly a week before it struck her; the "German Cortex," forced to stand off into fearful danger by the still greater danger of a head-on at Hatteras, and the "City of New York," "Texoma," and "City of Rome," starting on their Titanic race from Liverpool for New York the day after that great hurricane swept past St. Thomas, and covering their gon with it, and in spite of all its fury. I must confess this was a interesting list, try with the

Make all the rest (see track of the "Victoria" northwest from St. Thomas, on the first small chart)



The importance to navigators of a true appreciation of the law of storms—not the mere memorization of a set of rules, not an intelligent comprehension of the subject—is now perhaps clearly evident to the reader, at any rate that is the object I have aimed at, rather than a mere formal statement of generally accepted principles and an abstract discussion of storms and gales.

It will be seen that the probable bearing of the center, as indicated by the direction of the wind at a single station, is the great question, so far as the navigator is concerned. There are men who want and must have a land-and-fast rule,—an 8-point, a 10-point, or a 12-point rule—something to act on without thought, while every nerve is strained to save the ship's spars, sails, boats, engines, and cargo, from damage or destruction. Under such circumstances, I think that perhaps the safest general plan is to use the old 8-point rule, to be applied to the low clouds, instead of to the wind. This is equivalent, generally speaking, to a 10-point

The text and last plate, enclosed.

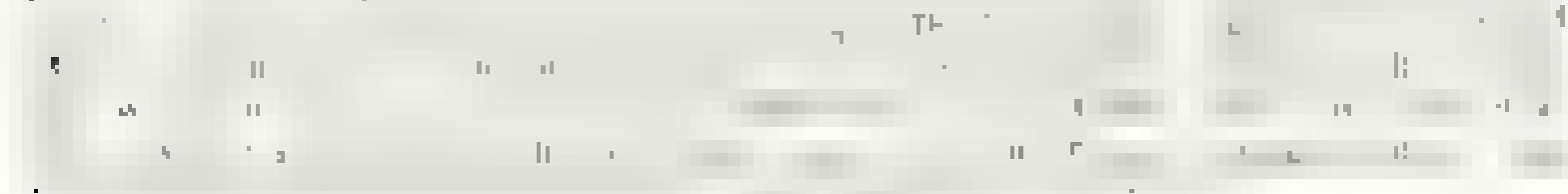
HURRICANES IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC - Typical Character - Analysis of the Wind from Actual Observation.

gives a still more complete illustration of the wind-streets which it assumes, with a brief discussion of the application of the 8-point rule. Especial attention is called to the statement made earlier, referring, of course, to hurricanes in the North Atlantic, but no longer true for the entire Northern Hemisphere, and

* although the 8-point rule is nearly true when the wind is anywhere navigable south of the equator, it is liable to be a very poor guide when the wind is from any point in the first of second quadrants.

Also to the following, which is applicable to the Southern Hemisphere by the substitution of "to the left" for "to the right."

* Perhaps the best general rule is that the center bears about eight points to the right of the direction from which the wind is blowing.

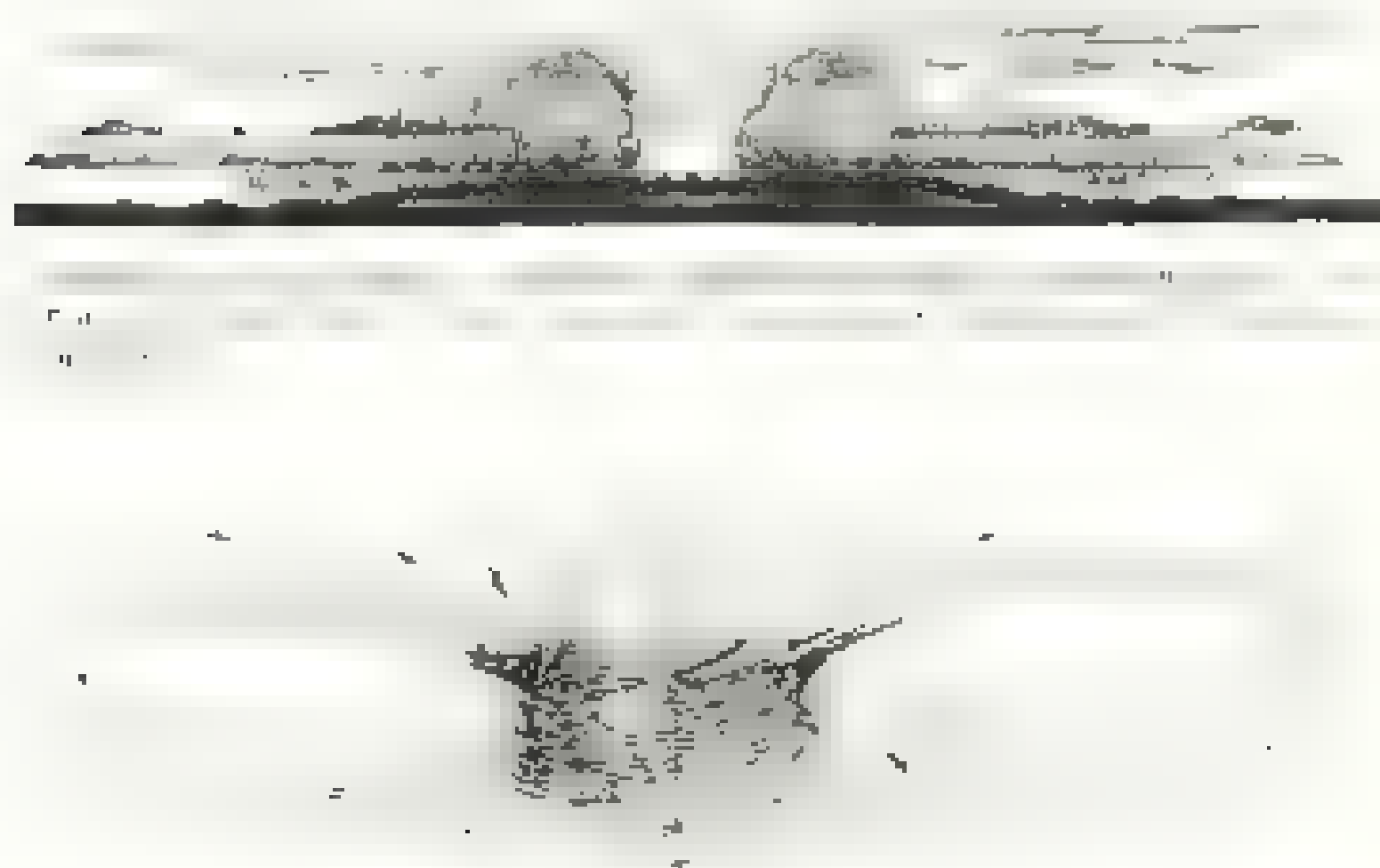


Such diagrams, carefully prepared from complete and reliable data, are of far greater practical value to navigators than volumes of explanation. They appeal to the eye and, when used in memory long after ideas conveyed by printed words have been forgotten.

Finally let us look for a moment at two sketches that I have made to give a graphic and I hope not incorrect idea of the general formation and the internal structure of a hurricane. In both sketches the vertical scale is, of course, greatly exaggerated. The first illustration particularly the great low bank (with the "bull's eye," or clear central space, shown in cross-section); the storm wave or general elevation of the surface of the ocean caused by the spirally inward wing winds and low barometric pressure (the cause, sometimes, of fearful floods along a rocky coast); and the probable, or possible, circulation of the upper atmosphere over the storm, together with the direct and reflected rays of a vertical sun as they pour into the central calm. The second sketch is to aid a clear mental conception of

Natural Geographic Motion

the actual motions of the particles of air as they flow inward toward the center, more and more rapidly, and this may help to free the mind from erroneous ideas that may be suggested by looking at or seeing the clouds as, piled up, apparently stationary masses that model take the *barrel*, or *crown* look of the hurricane, but which is really only the stationary and vertical *barrel* where the eruptions are such that the whirling, rushing masses of luminous atmosphere condense their heat into clouds and leave it, as they pass upward and outward



Sketch, as perceived by the observer, representing the atmospheric circulation in a hurricane. The arrow shows at the mass is the surface which

I have seen, and which is that has no stationary position, although if you visit the peak of the mountain, you will find it there.

In both of these sketches you will find the same sense of the marked individuality, symmetry, and intensity of a tropical cyclone, and its grasp upon the atmosphere, which it joins to the ocean, which it joins to the upper atmosphere by a high, low trunk, with widely extended roots and spreading branches, no doubt an enormous and effective conductor of atmospheric electricity, too, whose power is quickly shattered and destroyed by contact with the land, the notable absence of thunder (due



WEST INDIAN HURRICANES, AND OTHER NORTH ATLANTIC STORMS

From the Port Chart of the North Atlantic Ocean, August, 1887, with Additional Paragraphs

Explanation.—These diagrams are for practical use in West Indian hurricanes. They are made with the answer for ordinary storms along the principal Atlantic route. The small arrows fly with the wind, and are not wings as one at the end of the dotted line, the long arrow on each diagram is the storm track, that is, the probable path of the cyclone through the belt of latitude to which the diagrams refer.

Use of the Diagrams.—When a sailing ship meets, freshening rain squalls, and unknown a hurricane, select a proper constant bearing up to the NW and a true bearing, and then pass the upper line of the diagram of the direction of the wind, and thus ascertain the approximate bearing of the storm center. The probable storm track is indicated by the long arrow. If the wind shifts, plot your position by means of the new wind direction, bearing, and force of the wind has freshened, and the barometer has fallen. In this way you can readily observe every change of position relative to the storm center, and decide what action to take according to the character of your vessel and the nature of the weather.

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Cyclonic Circulation.—One of the most important indications that an approaching storm is of the incipient violence is that marked by an accumulation of low wind, lower and lower clouds, etc. This may be easily ascertained by remembering that a cyclone of any great intensity is an ascending spiral which, with a rotary motion in the Northern Hemisphere, against the hands of a watch as shown on the diagram. The surface wind, therefore, blows spirally toward the center, except very near the center, the next upper strata spiraling in a similar manner, and inward toward the center, the next higher current (the layers of air) in an outward spiral, and so on, until the highest strata spiral inward toward the center. The angle of divergence between the

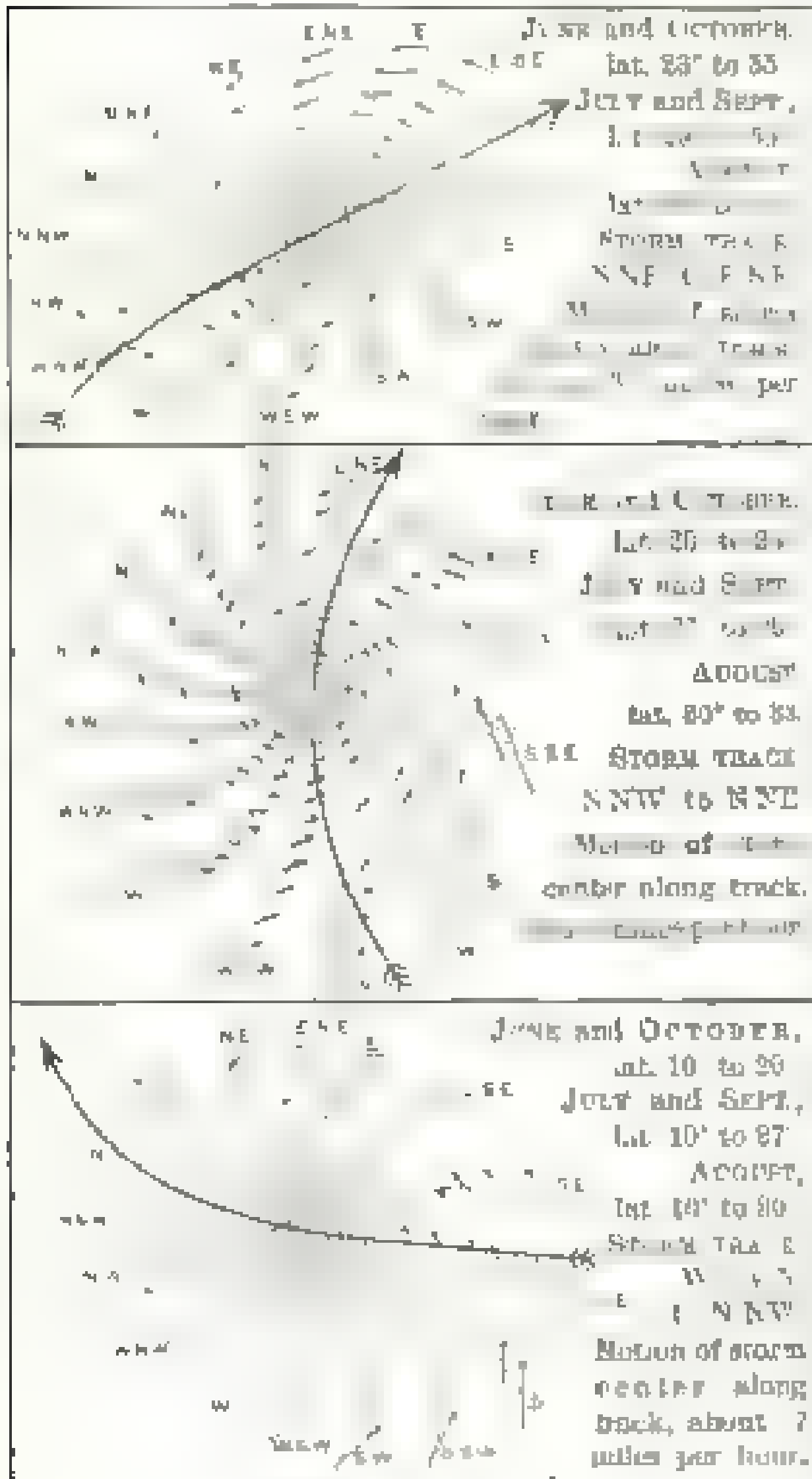
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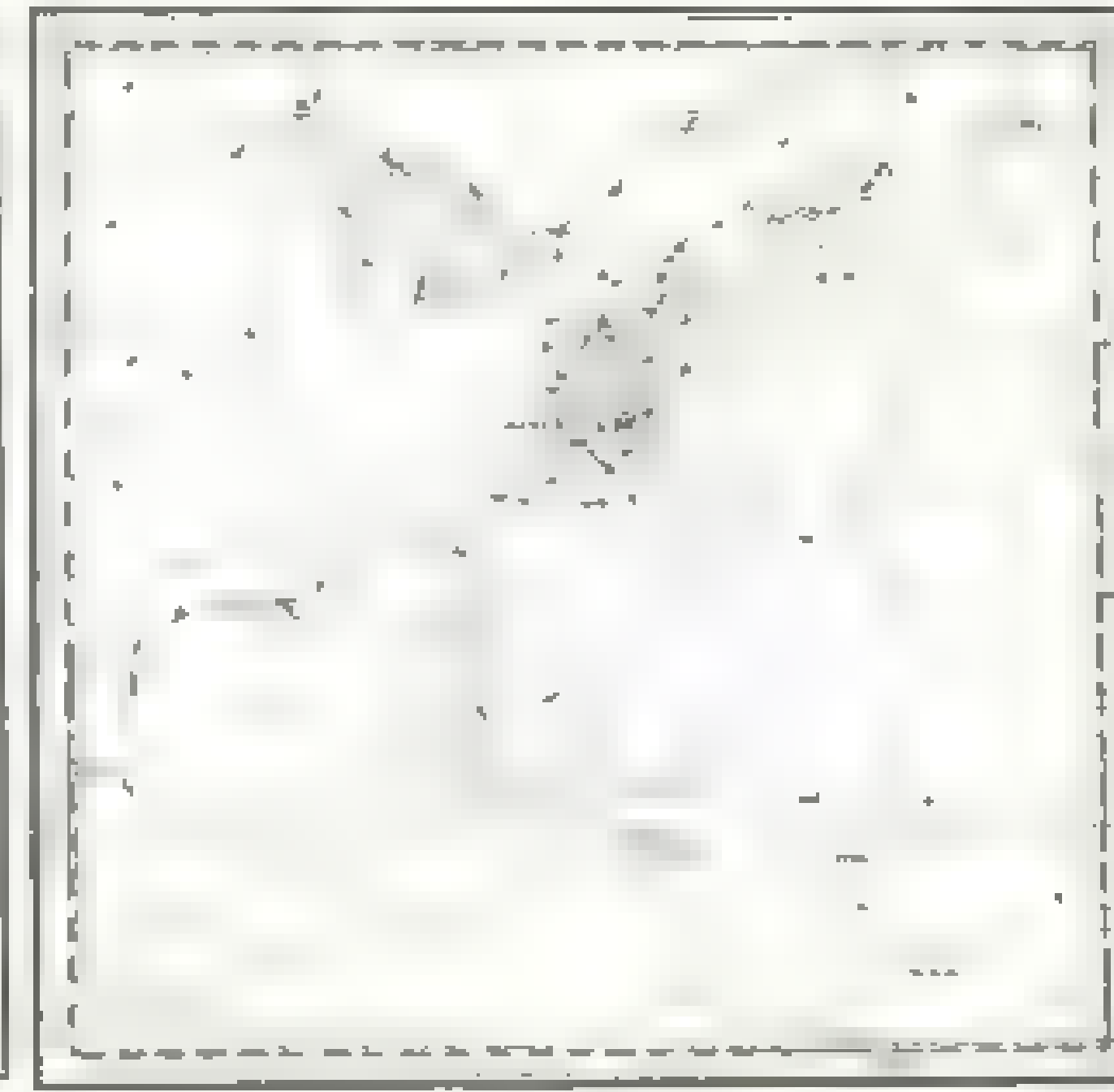
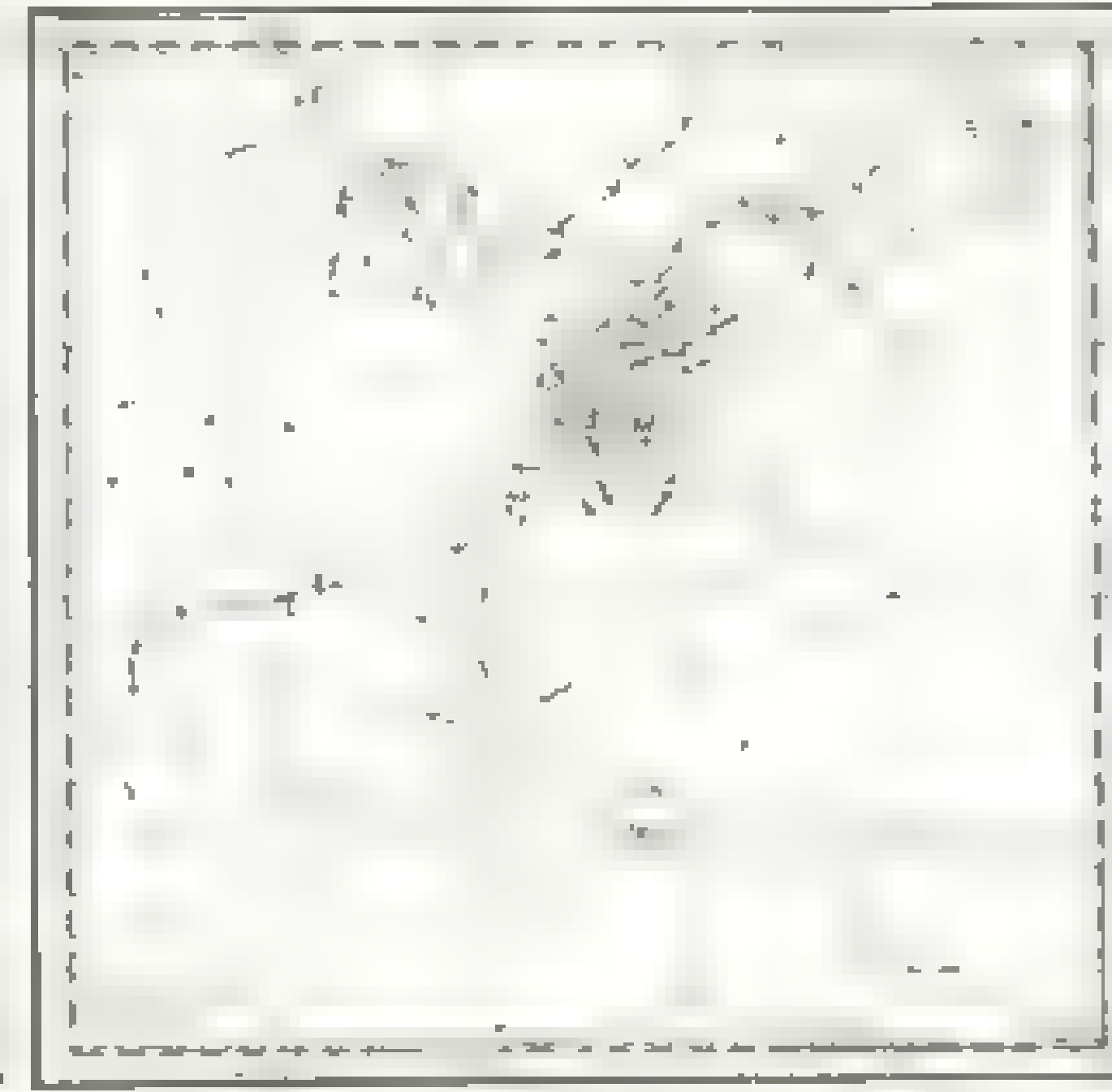
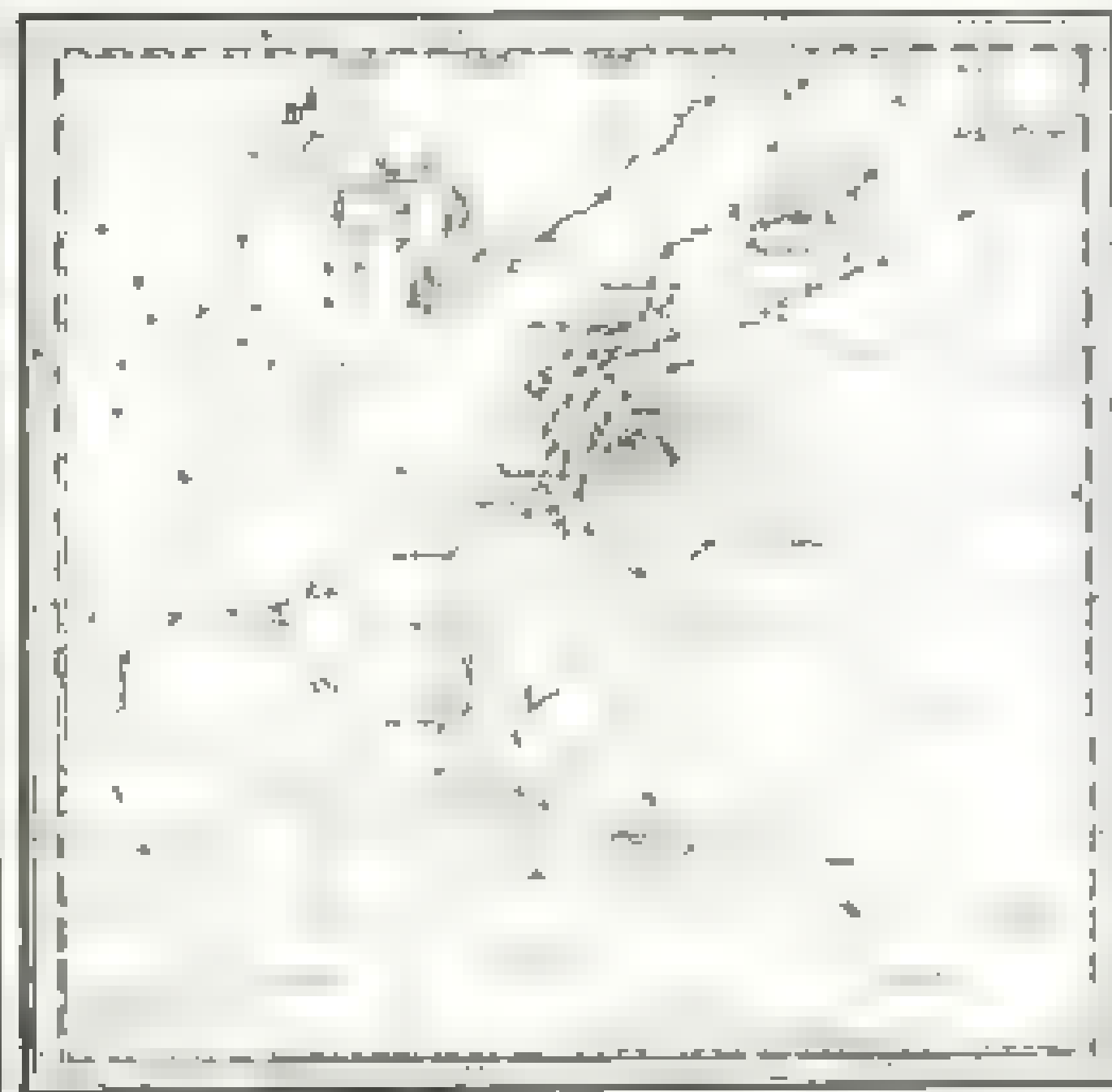
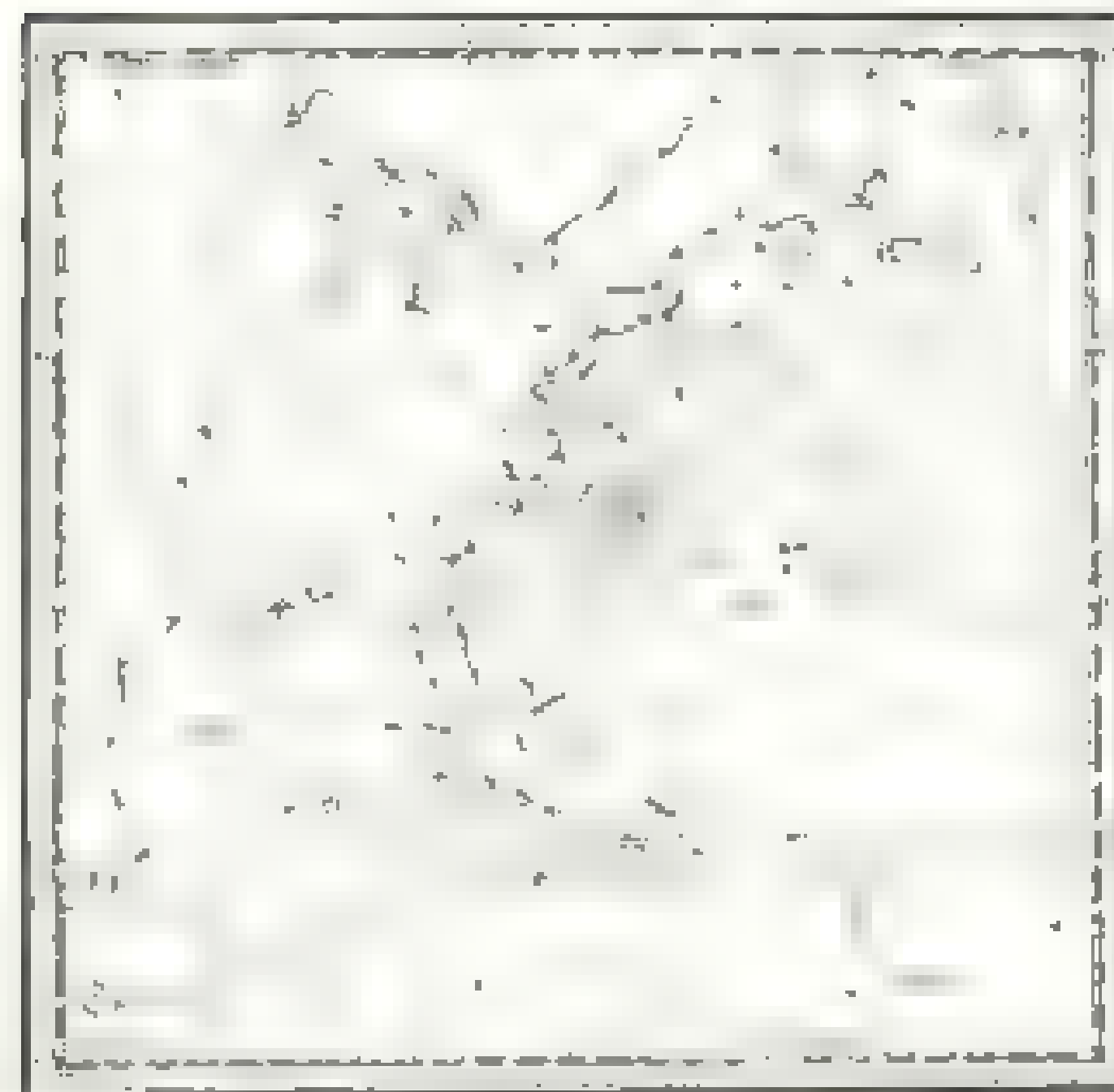
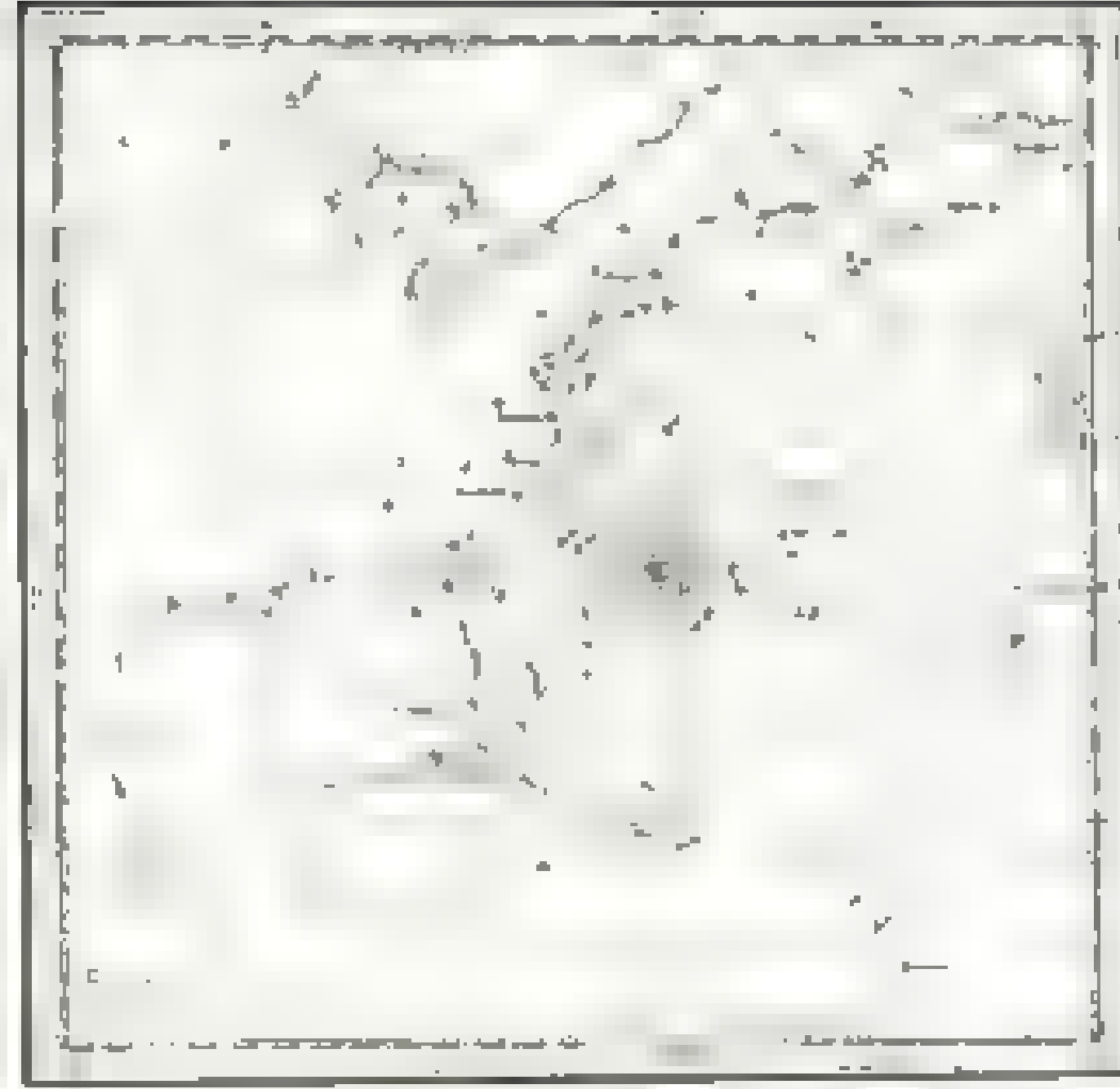
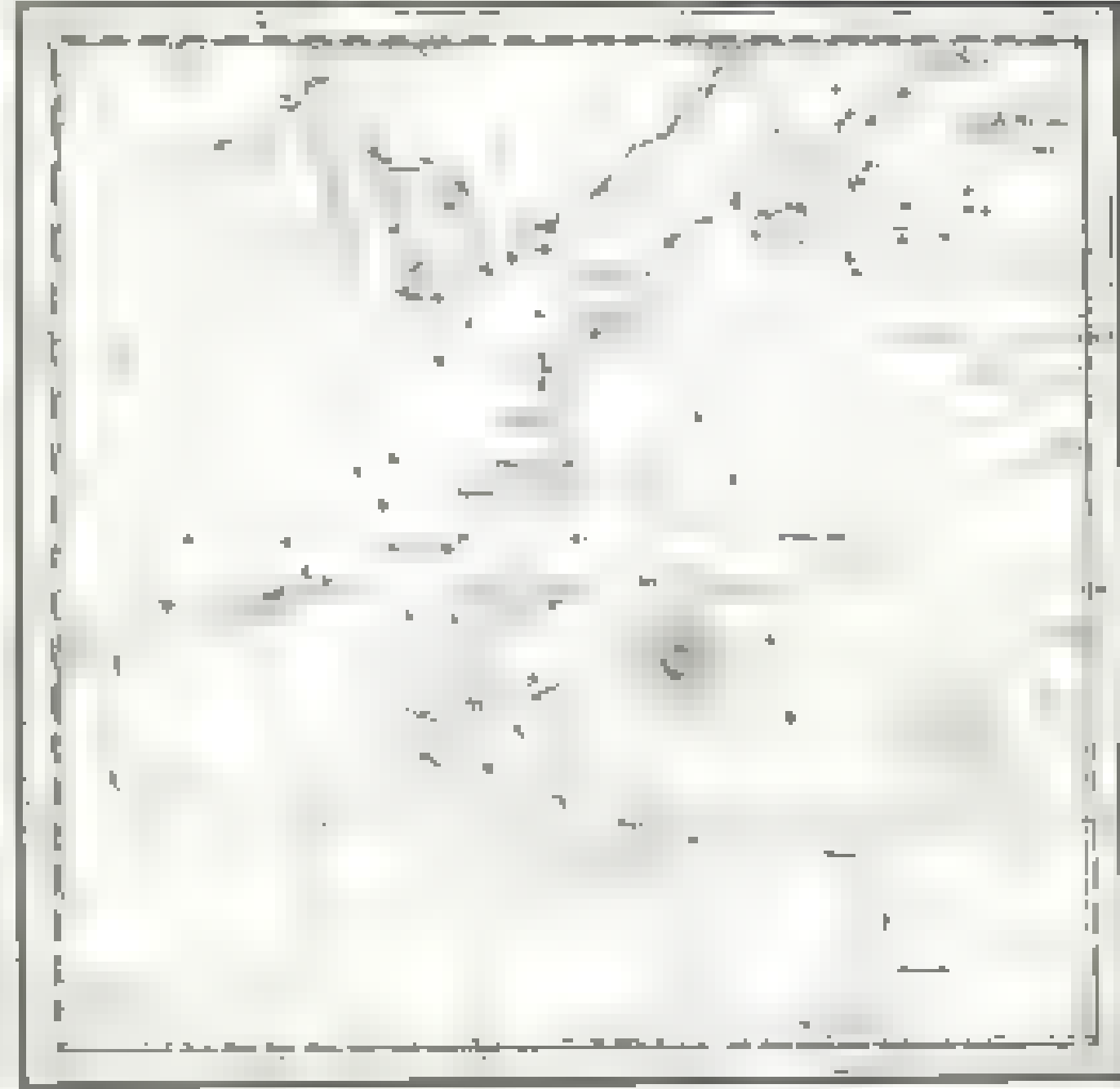
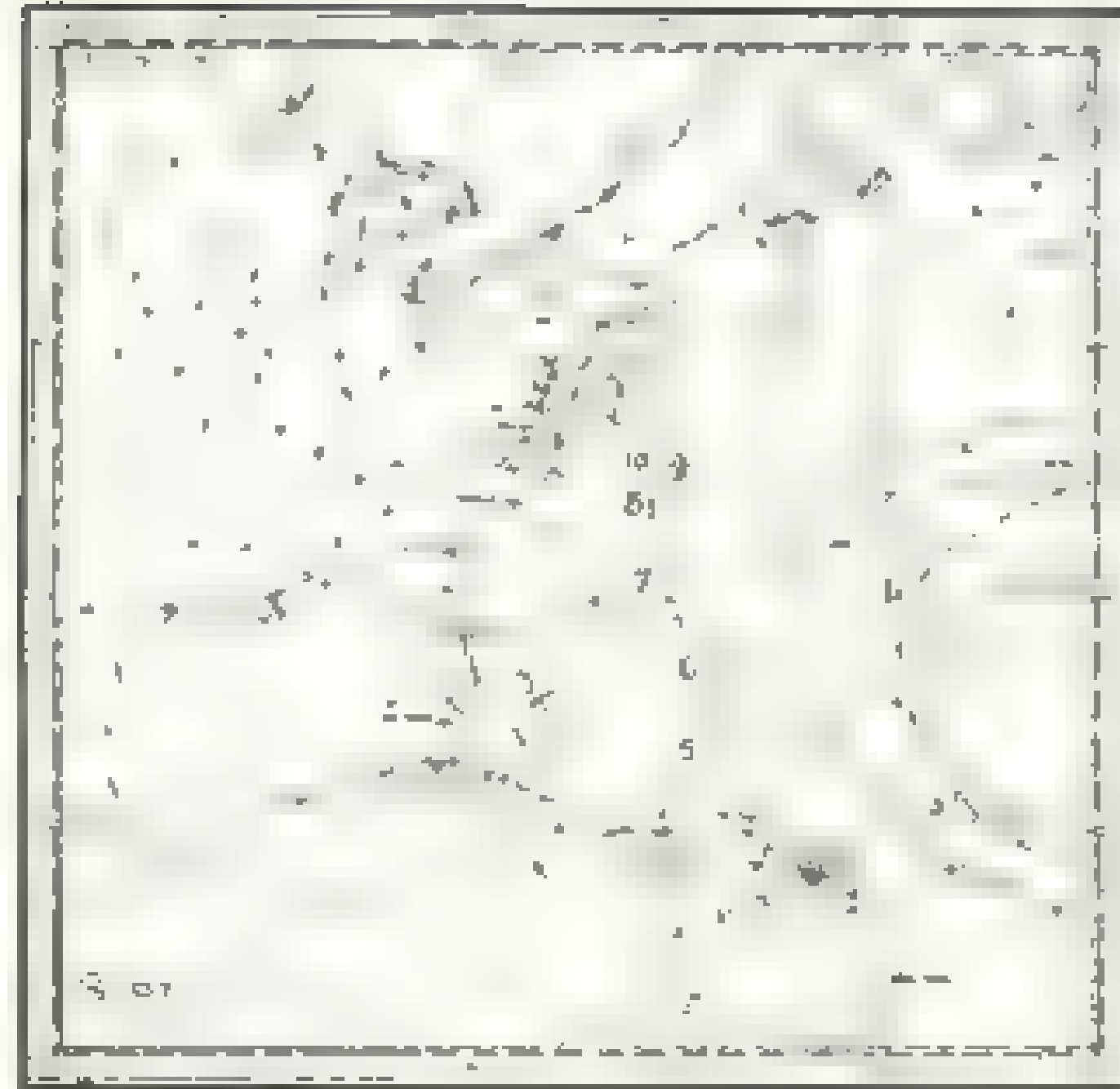
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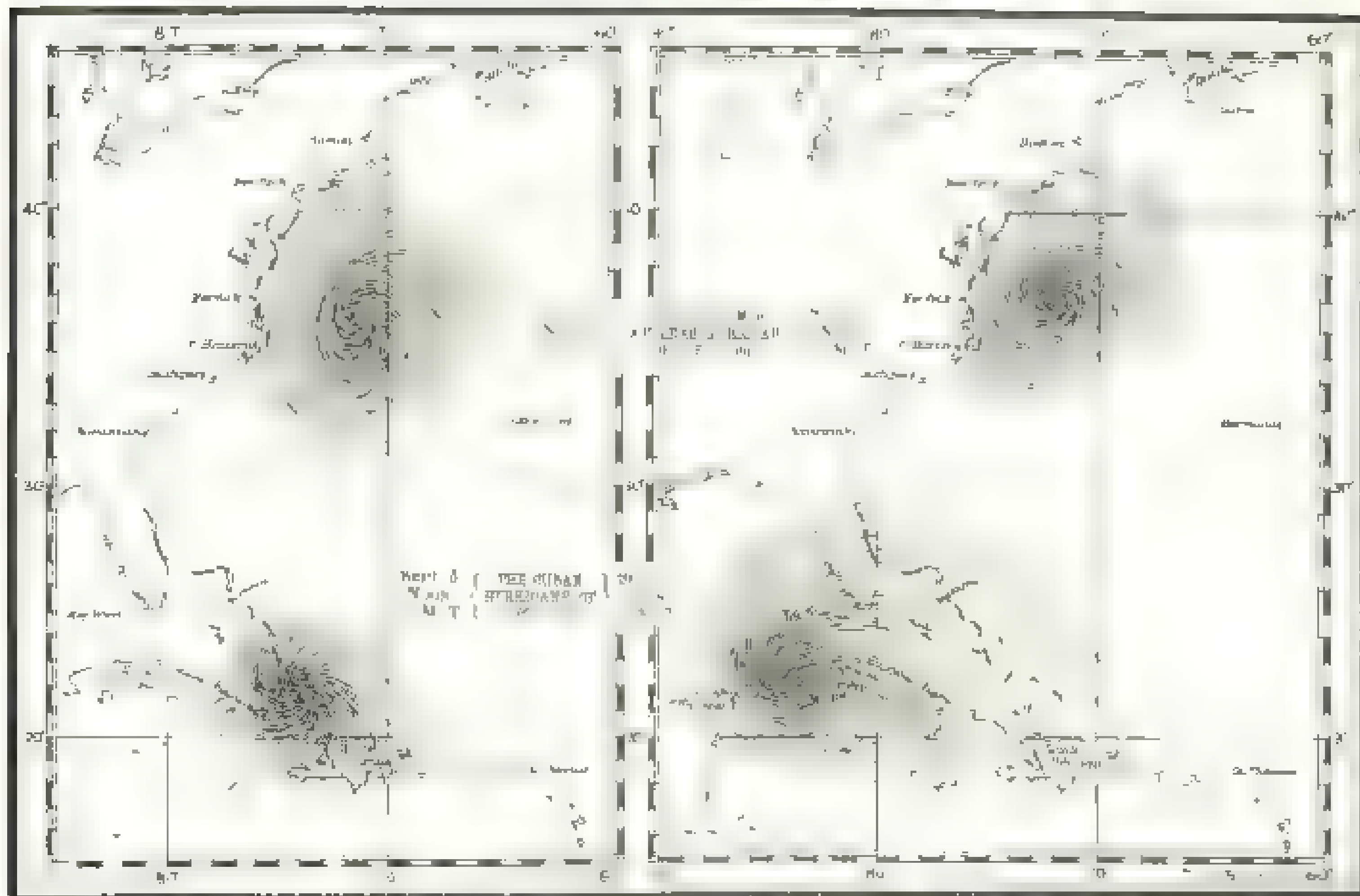
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Edition of July, 1887

THE ST THOMAS-HATTERAS HURRICANE OF SEPTEMBER 3-12 1889





HURRICANES IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC - CALCULATED PATHS OF THE WINDS FROM ACTUAL OBSERVATION

Year	Month	Day	Latitude	Longitude	Wind Speed (kts)	Pressure (mb)	Remarks
1917	Aug	13	30°N	70°W	40	1000	First observed
1917	Aug	14	25°N	65°W	50	995	Peak intensity
1917	Aug	15	20°N	60°W	60	990	Landfall near Cuba
1917	Aug	16	15°N	55°W	70	985	Maximum damage
1917	Aug	17	10°N	50°W	80	980	Eye observed
1917	Aug	18	5°N	45°W	90	975	Final observation
1917	Aug	19	0°N	40°W	100	970	Disappeared
1917	Aug	20	5°S	35°W	110	965	Re-emerged
1917	Aug	21	10°S	30°W	120	960	Peak intensity
1917	Aug	22	15°S	25°W	130	955	Landfall near Brazil
1917	Aug	23	20°S	20°W	140	950	Maximum damage
1917	Aug	24	25°S	15°W	150	945	Final observation
1917	Aug	25	30°S	10°W	160	940	Disappeared
1917	Aug	26	35°S	5°W	170	935	Re-emerged
1917	Aug	27	40°S	0°W	180	930	Peak intensity
1917	Aug	28	45°S	5°E	190	925	Landfall near Africa
1917	Aug	29	50°S	10°E	200	920	Maximum damage
1917	Aug	30	55°S	15°E	210	915	Final observation
1917	Aug	31	60°S	20°E	220	910	Disappeared

* During the hurricane season, even if only position, wind, weather and barometer, at night, no data need be entering these columns.

trated by the report of the "Victim," quoted above) is of interest to this connection. If I have succeeded in this, and hereby given a clearer idea to the casual reader or suggested a fertile train of thought to any physicist, I shall feel more than repaid for the effort.

I have thus attempted but a more than to touch upon the practical side of this great question, and this in a popular way, to induce my readers to follow me to the end. The many other ~~points~~ ~~problems~~ ~~of~~ ~~the~~ ~~Law~~ ~~in~~ ~~not~~ ~~to~~ ~~raise~~ ~~and~~ ~~discuss~~ ~~must~~ ~~be~~ ~~re-~~ ~~ferred~~ ~~to~~ ~~the~~ ~~proper~~ ~~authorities~~ ~~to~~ ~~be~~ ~~re-~~ ~~solved~~. Our efforts in the Synoptic Office must be primarily to help the navigator, and only secondarily to try to collect and publish facts for the scientist to study at his leisure. The causes of these terrific storms are of interest to us as they may help us to protect life and property, rather than for the proof of any theory, or the gratification of any pet idea. And if Science will but improve the Law of Storms, as practical men use it for the guidance of their vessels and for safety of the lives and cargoes intrusted to their care, it will be one more welcome proof that theory and practice go hand in hand.

THE IRRIGATION PROBLEM IN MONTANA

By H. M. WILSON

The development of the irrigation resources of a region under the supervision of a Government, requires study of the social and political conditions and of the industrial occupations of its inhabitants.

The determination of the best plan for the utilization of its waters and agricultural lands is a problem in irrigation engineering. The solution of the problem calls for an intimate knowledge of many of the best methods of construction, but

for a knowledge of the rainfall, vapour pressure and air volumes and of the duty of water. It further requires such an understanding of the topography of the region as will enable the engineer to determine the area of the catchment basin of each stream, and to intelligently select sites for the construction of canals and storage reservoirs and to determine from what source of water supply each district may be best irrigated.

Experience and practice in various parts of the world have already proven that irrigation, undertaken on a large scale by private capital, have seldom been remunerative investments. In fact, have frequently been financial failures. This is due to many causes among which may be mentioned the fact that though the law of gravity may be easily settled and the works made to overcome it, by, taxes must be paid for water and considerable sums expended annually for maintenance before the water can be put to any use. Water is a tax, and interest is charged on the whole expenditure.

These States owe their prosperity to the ownership and sale of land subject to our claims. In order to secure a proper remuneration to the capital which provides the water, and an outlet of water service to the farmer who uses it with justice to his interests, State legislation must fully define the rights and responsibilities of appropriators, the mode and method of measuring the flow of streams, granting the right of way and appointing proper officers to see that the various laws are enforced.

That irrigation enterprises will have great and rapid development in Montana in the near future will be readily perceived from the facts shown later on in this article, while I am fully convinced that it is now entering on that period. The histories of both California and Colorado have shown that great numbers of people have brought to them a large population who were enabled to gain a livelihood by raising products, while the great and far-famed products created by the miners, caused these people to turn their attention to agriculture, which has now rapidly surpassed them in

importance. In California, the sugar beet was the supreme and only cultivation, today agriculture is the dominant factor in our "olive tree" the sugar was true of Colorado and is now agriculture is rapidly becoming her most important industry. While Montana is today in the van in raising beef, sheep and output, the time for the supremacy of agriculture within her borders has received an increased impetus by her recent accession to State-

hood. Many of the irrigation problems present some features which are entirely encountered in any other country.

Usually irrigation is practiced in semi-desert and desert regions where water is scarce, the result is such that a great number of agricultural products usually of the better paying varieties are raised, at a sacrifice of which enormous sums may be spent on irrigation works, thus imposing a heavy tax per acre on the land for their construction, and still, such is the prodigious cost of these regions, that the farmer will yield fair profits.

In Montana the reverse is the case, water is generally abundant though sometimes unnecessary in the larger streams to require extensive works in order to conduct it advantageously, while the land is not usually so productive as owing to the extreme cost of the cultivation only of the less profitable crops, namely hay, grain and potatoes, in consequence of which the cost of construction of irrigation works becomes a question of wisdom, since a tax of a few cents per acre is a way or the other will render the pursuit of agriculture a success or a failure, and decide the fate of the irrigation enterprise.

It is probable that \$10.00 per acre for a water right in perpetuity, or \$2.00 per acre per annum for the use of water is the maximum charge which the crop will bear.

AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL RESOURCES

It will be advisable now to take a lasty glance at the State of Montana, and see what are her agricultural capabilities and what need exists for irrigation as a factor in their development.

According to the report of the State Auditor for 1888 there were in that year 143,700 horses and ponies valued at \$1,000,000; 488,500 cattle valued at \$9,000,000; 1,453,000 sheep valued at \$2,165,000; 3,741,000 acres of improved lands, valued inclusive of improvements at \$12,300,000; 35,000 town lots valued with improvements at \$4040,000; and including all kinds of personal and real property a total assessment for the State of \$87,500,000.

There were raised in the State during the same year 776,000 bushels of wheat on 26,000 acres, an average yield of about 30 bushels per acre; 1,000,000 bushels of oats on 35,000 acres, an average yield of over 35 bushels per acre; 243,000 bushels of potatoes on 3700 acres, or 240 bushels per acre, and 6,000,000 lbs. of all other vegetables on 450 acres; 235,000 tons of hay were cut, and 7,500 bushels of apples and other fruits were raised, while 4,500,000 lbs. of wool were sheared.

The gross receipt of the 4 great mills were \$20,800,000, the value of the product of the cotton-wool furnaces was \$16,000,000 in burlap, and the coal mines produced 200,000 bushels of coal.

The wood product for the present year, 1889, exceeded in amount that of any other State west of the Missouri River, and its quality was such that it brought a higher price per pound than that of any other western State, the price paid in California ranging from 15 to 17 cents per pound against 20 to 24 cents in Montana.

The accompanying table will show the relative value of the production of precious metals in the three leading States during 1887, from which it will be seen that Montana led Colorado by

	1887	1888	1889
Silver	\$17,500,000	\$15,000,000	\$13,000,000
Copper	0	0	0
Gold	0	0	0
Total	\$17,500,000	\$15,000,000	\$13,000,000

Since 1887 Montana has been rapidly gaining in wealth, even in the production of copper, and it now leads not only in

the total value of the precious metals produced, but also in the value of the silver and copper products separately, and is only surpassed by California in the production of gold.

What as shown above Montana produces large quantities of vegetables and grain, the heavy mining population and vast herds of live stock furnish a home market for all of its present product, in fact, during this year many hundreds of tons of hay and car-loads of grain are being imported from the eastern States to feed the range stock during the coming winter.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The topography of Montana is very different from what is generally supposed by those who are not familiar with it, and this erroneous impression is largely due to the fact that the country is very mountainous in the old-fashioned and better known portion of the State, which lies in its southern corner near the Idaho and Wyoming lines; this region was first inhabited by those persons of western civilization, the prospector and miner, and in consequence of this and of the wide grandeur of the Yellowstone National Park, the generally pronounced red mountains of the topography and resources of the State are of forests and streams towering with granite and lava, and rugged mountains occupied by a few scattered mining camps and cattle ranches.

On the contrary there are scattered over various parts of the State many large towns, two of which, Butte and Helena, have each about 20,000 inhabitants, while only one-fourth of the area of the State is over 4,000 feet in elevation, and at least two-thirds of it is below 4,000 feet.

The mountainous district of the State, which occupies but two-fifths of the total area, is in the south-western portion; these two ranges are in fact the last remnants of the great rock breakers born from Wyoming and Idaho and terminating in the rugged plains of the Saskatchewan River on the western end of the Missouri River on the northern and east.

It is in these great mountain ranges that the Clarke's Fork and Snake Rivers, two of the great mountain-beds of the Colorado after rising in the western and southern portions of the State join the Colorado on its way to the Pacific Ocean; among these mountains in the northern part

the Snake River rises and flows thence to the Arctic Ocean, while the

great Missouri and one of its principal branches, the Yellowstone River, rise in these mountains and after flowing northward nearly to the British line turn and flow eastward and join the Mississippi on its way to the Atlantic.

The highest mountains in Montana are in Park, Gallatin, Madison and Beaver Head Counties, in which latter the furthestmost branches of the Missouri, the Beaver Head and Big Hole Rivers, which form the Jefferson river, have their sources at the foot of the Rocky mountains and it was here that those intrepid explorers, Lewis and Clarke, first crossed the Continental divide in 1805 to the headwaters of one of the tributaries of the Snake river.

In these counties a few of the highest peaks remain, an elevation of 11,000 feet, from where the main range of the Rockies bears off to the north in a long, continuous and rugged ridge of sand stone and quartzite, with extensive beds of limestone north of the headwaters of the Dearborn River, and gradually falling off in elevation until near the British line the highest peaks are less than 7,000 feet above the sea.

From this same axis point at the southwest corner of a main spur branch of the Rockies, called the Beaver Head Mountains, bears a northwesterly and falling away in height, gives birth with an elevation of 2,200 feet in northern Missouri County where the Clarke's Fork river leaves the State, cutting across the foot of this range.

East of Madison and Jefferson Counties, and along the southern border of the State, are numerous detached mountain ranges, often 10,000 feet and sometimes 12,000 feet in elevation, which have generally a north and south trend and fall off near the middle of the State to a continuous, broad, and nearly level high prairie, or as it is locally called "black land," which continues to fall slowly in the same direction.

Do not imagine that these great ranges of mountains are wild and unimproved for such is not the case; they are merely great mountain masses, and between a foot and at top of them are still other ridges of mountains, many having symmetrical and regularly sloping sides, which are separated by broad, level and very fertile valleys, everywhere irrigated and cultivated by the aid of irrigation, while fields of cattle, horses and sheep graze on the hill sides.

Even among the roughest mountains a man may travel alone on horseback and find the right shelter and food somewhere in the

course of a day's journey, as was done by the author during the past summer, when he rode over 2,000 miles at various parts of the State. In the more rugged places riding one's way may be met with an everything case like.

At present these mountain valleys are the more thickly inhabited portions of the country, both because of the mines and because farming pursuits are more easily and conveniently followed owing to the greater abundance of small and easily controlled streams of water which render irrigation possible even by the poorest settler. Only in the southern portion of Carbon and Park Counties are the mountains so forbidding as to be uninhabited and therefore almost useless.

One of the remarkable characteristics of the Montana mountains is their great regularity and smoothness of outline. It is probable that even during the glacial period they may have lost all of the irregularities so characteristic of the everywhere rugged outline of the Rocky Mountains. Between these symmetrical ranges of mountains lie the broad and fertile valleys before referred to. These are generally valleys of construction, and at some former geologic period were occupied by lakes whose waters have since been drained by the streams, as they cut their way out of the mountains.

It is the extensive deposits from the ancient lakes which give to these valleys their fertile soils, while the unusual richness of their climate is largely due to the fact that they are seldom over 5,000 feet in altitude, and the high mountains surrounding them shelter them from the severe winds which sweep over the plains of Dakota, leaving the much dreaded "blizzards."

East of the Tongue River and north of the Yellowstone and Missouri Rivers, the level bench lands are everywhere between 3,000 feet in elevation, and often between 2,500 feet, and are very dry and devoid of water, though covered by an almost constant growth of low bunch grass. These bench lands are traversed by a few narrow, deep "canyons" or "wadens" having high banks 50 to 300 feet high, only during most of the year, the raging torrents of the early spring months.

It is on these bench lands that irrigation will find its greatest field, for here is a comparatively mild climate owing to low elevation, and here the soil is fertile, warm and deep.

AREA AND KINDS OF LAND.

The total area of Montana is 148,080 square miles, or 80,481,300 acres. Of this vast expanse 31,573,000 acres or about one-third of the whole is agricultural land, while of this 18,157,000 acres or a little less than one-fifth of the entire area is irrigable land, so classified not only because it will, if provided with water, raise profitable crops, but also because, in my opinion, water can with proper management be provided for it.

Of the total area of the State only about 1,200,000 acres or less than one sixteenth of the irrigable area may be easily cultivated, by this I do not mean that this will be amount is now reclaimed, but that it may with the necessary able to be employed by private parties with limited capital, be readily brought under cultivation by the same methods by which most of the lands in Montana are now irrigated.

The amount of land actually under cultivation, according to the assessment of 1888, was 348,700 acres, and this should probably be increased by about one-half, since the farmers doubtless greatly undervalued the amount of their cultivated areas to the assessor—perhaps then, 500,000 acres under cultivation would be nearer the truth.

It is estimated that three-fourths of the remaining 75,000,000 acres are not classed above as irrigable, or say 53,000,000 acres, which nearly two-thirds of the total area of the State, will with the improved facilities for watering live stock and for domestic use offered by the highest state of irrigation development, become valuable as grazing land, since it is everywhere covered with an abundant growth of bunch grass, and many possess better facilities for watering and for the establishment of home farms, to cause it to be entirely occupied for grazing purposes.

Nearly, or quite all, of the lands above classed as agricultural and pasturable lands, are now covered with an abundant growth of bunch grass, or else a portion of sage brush or prickly pear, now devoid of any trees or other kind of patches of willows and shrubs along the streams, or a few isolated clumps of cotton-wood and juniper on the highest lands.

About 1,000,000 of the most fertile lands are situated at lower levels and are situated in the highest mountains, though west of the Territory. Divide the valleys and flat lands, and are sometimes covered with timber,

The remaining 10,000,000 acres may be classed as barren and rugged mountain peaks and some little barren "bad lands" near the southeastern corner of the State, and the broken and rough out banks of rivers, "canyons," etc.

It is in these more rugged, mountain regions that the great gold, silver and copper deposits are found.

CLIMATE.

The climate of Montana is far more moderate and agreeable than is generally supposed, the spring and fall months in the valleys, which are the principal inhabited and cultivated portions, being delightfully mild and pleasant, with frost generally only at night, though it rose last fall May and began in early October.

The accompanying table shows the dates of the first and last killing frosts at Helena, and the mean monthly temperatures at Helena, which place is chosen as a typical station, its altitude being 4,262 feet. From this table, which extends over a period of ten years, from 1880 to 1889, inclusive, with few exceptions, it appears that the earliest killing frost occurred on September 25th, 1881, and the latest killing frost on May 31, 1886, but there were very exceptional frosts, the average dates for the same periods being September 9th and April 17th. The maximum temperature during the same period occurred on July, 1886, and was 103 degrees in the noon, while no other years showed a higher temperature than 87 degrees; and the average maximum temperature for the ten years was 84 degrees. The minimum temperature for the same period was -4 degrees, occurring in February, 1887, and the average minimum for ten years was -18 degrees. Great ranges of temperature are not unusual experience, however, especially in local areas in the higher mountain valleys, where unusual frosts and snow storms have occurred, though rarely, killing potatoes and other tender crops even in July and August.

On September 31st of this year at the Upper Madison Valley above 4,500 feet of elevation, a temperature was experienced of 16 degrees at 70 degrees, which at about 8 o'clock on the same evening a snow storm occurred during which the thermometer must have fallen several degrees below the freezing point, but owing to the following morning a lot of the snow had disappeared and the temperature was greatly moderated.

The Precipitation Problem in 1917

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regions of the atmosphere and the absence of very large winds in the mountain valleys. The more exposed plains to the north are subject to the frequent and vigorous visits of the famous "cutback" winds, which blow from the west, and in dry weather the snow-laden flocks of snow disappear in a single day.

The following table shows the mean annual rain fall at various Signal Service stations. Moreover, and from these it will be seen that during a period of ten years the entire State has only been snowed over during 1888 and was but 12.79 inches. The mean for this period was 1

Mean Precipitation in Montana during Growing Season

GROWING SEASON OF	Year									
	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891
1	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
2	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
3	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
4	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
5	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
6	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
7	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
8	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
9	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
10	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07

Growing season, May 15 to August 15.

Amount Reported to the Signal Service, 1882-1891

	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891
1	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
2	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
3	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
4	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
5	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
6	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
7	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
8	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
9	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
10	12.47	12.24	12.10	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07

Moreover, from the first table, showing the average monthly precipitation at the Helena station, it will be seen that but 4.48 inches fall during May 15th to August 1st, inclusive, which is the growing season when the crops require moisture.

Information regarding evaporation is as yet very meagre, but at various stations observed in different parts of the State during August, September and October, it appears that the total average evaporation for the three months was 16 inches, and from the best information obtainable it appears that the total annual evaporation is 36 inches, that is to say, the surface of the water in a lake or reservoir will be lowered by evaporation 3 feet in a year.

Why Montana is an Arid Country

It has been stated by Major J. W. Powell, that in a general way the line between the humid and arid regions, or the amount of precipitation below which irrigation becomes necessary for the cultivation of crops, is from 34 to 28 inches per annum. This of course depends largely on the distribution of the rainfall, the proportion falling during the growing season, the humidity of the atmosphere, the character of the soil.

The average annual precipitation at Missoula is 14.92 inches, while the total average precipitation during the growing season is but 5.24 inches; from these considerations alone it is evident that the State is arid or semi-arid region.

This state of things is further borne out by the fact that no farmer will settle a new one or undertake to raise any kind of crops without first investing in irrigation, since experience has taught them all, that, though there may occasionally be an exceptionally wet season in which they can raise good crops without artificial aid, still, the years when crops depending wholly upon rainfall, for their moisture will be entirely lost, are so frequent as to render farming without irrigation very hazardous and unprofitable.

Soil

The soil along the stream bottoms at a slight elevation above their beds is usually a heavy, black, clayey loam, and though rich and fertile is soon washed by water, and then, on drying, cakes on the surface, killing the young plants. On this account the irrigators seldom water these bottom lands until after the crop has acquired a healthy growth, preferring to trust to the early rains

run along sprouts above the surface, rather than run the risk of its eroding and thus preventing them from breaking through.

These bottom lands though really the poorest for irrigating, are nearly too dry lands now cultivated, because of the greater ease and cheapness of supplying them with water. From two to three tons of hay and from 25 to 30 bushels of grain per acre are raised even on these inferior lands.

The best, and by far the more abundant agricultural lands, are the "bench lands," these are situated high above the stream beds and the soil is nearly a warm open, rich, sandy loam, several feet in depth and usually underlain by a deep bed of gravel. Though in irrigating, this soil at first requires more water, it will, owing to its excellent natural drainage, last for all time and will neither clog with water nor cake on the surface.

If these bench lands would be rendered irrigable by government aid and surveys, though to develop them will require enormous amounts of capital; still, they are so extensive in area that the work can generally be concluded on a grand and economical scale.

DUTY OF WATER.

From the meagre information now obtainable it is probable that an average soil and for the staple hay, grain and vegetable crops in Montana, about one cubic foot of water per second flowing during the irrigating season, will be sufficient for 100 acres; this quantity is known as the "duty of water."

The irrigating season lasts about three months. While the crops are maturing, during part of May, June and July, they will receive two or three waterings, and in early September the hay lands are again watered in order to start the growth of grass before the frosts.

In case all the surplus water of a given stream is stored, the duty of that stream will be increased by the amount of water now flowing to waste during the remaining nine months, and as a portion of this time is the flood period, owing to the melting of the snows in the mountains and to the spring rains, this storage water will increase the duty of the stream at least five-fold; that is, five times as many acres may be irrigated by the stream as at present, provided that storage capacity can be found for all of its waste waters.

In considering the duty of a stream it must be remembered that there is a great loss of water by seepage through the sides of a canal, and evaporation from its surface, between the headworks and the irrigated area, this loss may amount to from 25 to 35 per cent., according to climate, soil, and the length and cross-section of the canal.

PRESENT STATE OF THE CANON OF RIGHTS AND LAWS

The stages of irrigation development are better illustrated by the water law of California than any other State in the Union.

These irrigation practices and laws are exceedingly conservative, and remain so chiefly because of the abundance of water, and the small facility with which it can be diverted to the land; as a consequence of this latter fact the laws were framed in the most liberal spirit, leaving right of control to man, or acknowledging the right of priority in appropriating the waters, and further stating that any person having a claim leading to irrigable lands may use the waters of the territory for irrigation.

The latest law, framed in 1865, is a very slight improvement; it requires persons appropriating water to post the application in some public place; to file with the county recorder a notice of appropriation, with names and proper description of stream, etc., and that work must be commenced within forty days of the posting of the notice and be prosecuted with diligence until completed.

Persons who have heretofore acquired title to the use of water, may within six months from the passage of this law file a statement of the above facts in the office of the recorder, but failure to do this shall not forfeit his rights.

Provision is made for the measurement of water, using that very uncertain and elastic unit, the river's inch, and defining the term.

The difficulties arising under these laws will be appreciated, when I state that it is impossible to construct a rating flume that will measure the number of inches of water flowing in a large stream, by the method provided in the law.

Then, because previous appropriators are not compelled to record the amount of water appropriated, and those acquiring titles under the first law invariably claim much more water than they need, in fact often appropriate and even record more water than there is flowing in the stream. This is owing to the fact that

they were not at first compelled to construct their works, "with due diligence and completed," nor to make ditches of capacities capable of carrying the volumes claimed, and above all because there is no officer having the power to measure the quantities of water diverted or to see that the works are prosecuted with due diligence. Foolish and unsatisfactory litigation results, hastened by the occupation of lands lower down on some stream which in a very dry season may not flow sufficient water for all the appropriators who have acquired titles, whereupon the later settlers who have recorded their appropriations claim the water, while those who diverted water before the passage of the last law claim the right to it, though unrecorded, and as a consequence the case is carried to the courts, often with unjust and always with expensive results.

During the past exceptionally dry season these conditions led to much bitter litigation, often to bloodshed, and equally often to financial ruin owing to the supply of water being insufficient to mature the crops planted.

Water being very abundant in the smaller mountain valleys has led to great wastefulness in its use, the irrigator after applying what water his crops needed, instead of turning it back into the stream for the use of settlers lower down, generally turns his ditch loose on the open prairie and allows the water to run to waste. These wasteful methods of applying the water to the crops are employed, and owing to the cheap and hasty construction of a vast number of small ditches the loss by seepage is very great; it has been estimated that there is on an average a ditch for every 200 acres of land cultivated, making a total of about 2600 irrigating ditches in the State.

In the last two years there has been a marked increase in the interest taken in irrigation enterprises, and though this has resulted in the formation of several large companies, which intend to take water by long and expensive canals to sections now uncultivated, yet in these cases are universally seen the same crude methods employed in first beginnings, without the aid or advice of experienced engineers. Large canals are being constructed at great cost, capable of carrying many times the amount of water flowing in the stream appropriated, whereas a much smaller and less expensive one would have carried the entire water supply. Again small canals have been constructed to carry small volumes of water very long distances, often 50 to 80 miles, while in

ready owing to the great percentage of loss by seepage and evaporation, little or none of the water entering at the headgates will ever reach the irrigable lands.

Such ill advised projects are to be even more deplored than the smaller operations before spoken of, more the certain waste of money and the loss of time and the consequent discouraging capitalists from investing in even well planned irrigation projects, and will retard the construction of valuable and necessary works.

POSSIBLE IRRIGATION ENTERPRISES.

During the past season the author made an extensive though hurried reconnaissance of Montana, in the progress of which he rode on horse back 1,200 miles and traveled 3,000 miles by rail, examining with some degree of detail all of the central counties and making a few hasty trips into Choteau, Dawson and Glacier Counties. In the course of this reconnaissance the sites for sixty storage reservoirs, having a combined storage capacity of about 3,500,000 acre feet were carefully examined, and lines of ten great irrigating canals approximately decided on. It may be well to state here that an acre-foot of water is a very convenient unit of measure adopted by the U. S. Geological Survey in speaking of the contents of large reservoirs, and refers to a body of water one acre in superficial area and one foot in depth.

In every case these proposed reservoirs are so situated, that their storage water will be convenient to large bodies of irrigable land, which, without some such provision for water supply must forever remain uncultivated, but which with irrigation from these reservoirs will ultimately become thickly inhabited and very productive regions. The same statements apply to the canals projected, though of course detailed surveys may prove the impracticability of some of these works as financial investments.

Mention will be made of a few of the more important of these projects; those which appear most likely to prove financial success.

North of the Yellowstone and between it and the Musselshell and Missouri Rivers is a broad fertile valley crossed by a few long conical, dry sleeping or low cones of molting snow or heavy spring storms, and then raging torrents for a period of a few days or hours. This broad land between the cones is flat topped and has a regular and gentle slope to the eastward,

falling about six feet per mile, a little more rapidly north of Livingston. The general elevation of this bench above the Yellowstone River varies from 600 feet north of Stillwater, to 400 feet north of Miles City, and includes about 11,000,000 acres, of which at least 8,235,000 acres are of the best quality for agricultural purposes and readily accessible by the great canal. In all this vast area there is not even sufficient water for the few horses and cattle which range on it, and they are compelled to congregate near the occasional ponds and springs scattered at long intervals over it.

From numerous examinations made hastily with aneroid and hand-level, it seems likely that a great canal can be taken from the Yellowstone, somewhere in the neighborhood of Livingston or lower down the river, and led upon the summit of the bench with a diversion line not over 100 miles in length. Taken out at Livingston the canal would encounter no difficult construction, and would mainly consist in earth excavation with very little rock work. It would require a few fills and a few cuttings in the larger side streams, such as the Little and Big Horn, and Sweet Grass Creeks. It would reach the summit of the bench north of Mott at an altitude of about 4,400 feet and thence could be conducted with an easy downward gradient, with occasional fills to lower grade.

The water flowing in the Yellowstone River at Livingston during the irrigating season this year averaged 1,000 cubic feet per second, which, with an allowance of thirty per cent. for loss by seepage and evaporation in the canal, would leave about 1,800 second feet at the point of utilization or sufficient to irrigate 160,000 acres.

The average normal discharge from Yellowstone Lake is 700 second feet, and a dam about 300 feet long and less than ten feet high, constructed below the outlet of the lake, would store the outflow from October to May, inclusive, eight months, a total including flood discharges of at least 600,000 acre feet, an amount which, allowing for loss by evaporation in the lake, and by seepage and evaporation in the canal, would irrigate 400,000 acres, in addition to the 100,000 acres previously mentioned. Besides this volume probably half as much more can be readily stored on the Lamar and Gardiner Rivers, and the other branches of the Yellowstone which join it above Livingston, bringing the total area of reclaimed land to nearly 1,000,000 acres.

There are many similar and even better opportunities for irrigation development, such as the construction of a canal from the West Gallatin River near Bozeman. This canal would require no expensive diversion dam, as its waters would become immediately available at the headworks, and by appropriating the 5 to second feet of water flowing in the river, would reclaim at a minimum cost 50,000 acres, or twice the amount of land now cultivated there. Storage on the Upper Gallatin River would greatly increase the amount of reclaimed land.

Storage reservoirs can be easily constructed on the headwaters of the Beaver Head River, whereby at least 150,000 acres could be added to the 25,000 acres now under cultivation in the Beaver Head Valley near Dillon.

A canal requiring no diversion line can be taken out on the east side of the Missouri River near Toston, which will irrigate all of the good land in the Missouri Valley, at least 100,000 acres. This canal would require some dikes and aqueducts in crossing the various side streams such as Deep and Dark Creeks, and Confederate Creek.

Detailed surveys have been made during the past summer on the Sun River which indicate that storage will add some 200,000 more feet to the amount of water in that stream now available for irrigation. There are at least 100,000 acres of good agricultural land between the Dearborn, Sun, and Teton Rivers, which must forever remain barren of cultivated products unless provided with water by means of storage on these streams, and the surveys above alluded to indicate that by this means 100,000 acres of this land can be reclaimed by the Sun River alone.

Mention might be made to many more similar projects, such as the construction of a simple canal from the Missouri River to irrigate Chestnut Valley, south of Great Falls, whereby 120,000 acres would be reclaimed, or one from the Upper Madison River whereby 200,000 acres of the Madison Valley might receive water, but the foregoing will suffice to show the possibilities of irrigation development in Montana.

It would be doing the resources of a great and vast area of Montana injustice if reference were not made to the Black River country, the great Indian reservation of 17,880,000 acres in the northern part of the State which has recently been open to settlement. This region has not been examined by the author, but from conversations with a number of its well-informed inhab-

itants it appear that the soil is very fertile, and that during average moist years excellent crops can be raised there without irrigation. This last statement, however, should not be too readily accepted. It is probable that some storage water may be retained in the hills along the British line, though its development will doubtless involve international questions.

A GLANCE AT THE FUTURE.

This interesting subject cannot be passed by without a little castle building, and accordingly an attempt will be made to show what the future of Montana may owe to irrigation.

It has just been shown how and where 1,750,000 acres may be added to the area at present under cultivation; many times this amount, however, can be reclaimed. Settled as closely as a large irrigated district would naturally be, these 1,750,000 acres will be increased by about 15 per cent. or 262,500 acres, the area which will be occupied by roads, buildings, and towns; that is to say over 2,000,000 acres will be rendered capable of sustaining the highest degree of settlement, though in reality this amount will be much greater since a large portion of the land will not be directly irrigated, since it will indirectly receive sufficient moisture from the neighboring fields to render it serviceable for pasturage.

It has been claimed by various authorities that a homestead of forty acres is abundant for the support of a family, assuming this estimate to be correct, then 2,000,000 acres will support 50,000 families; at five persons each this would give a farm population of 250,000. This number of farm workers would require a town and village population of one and one-half more, or our 2,000,000 acres would add in all 375,000 people to the State.

On the same basis the 18,000,000 acres which have been classified as irrigable land, (and this estimate is below that of the Montana Society of civil engineers and other authorities), would support 3,120,000 inhabitants.

